







GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE;

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDAF.

THE SIXTY-FIFTH EDITION.

REVISED WITH CORRECTIONS AND ADDITION

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PREFACE.

As more than twenty years have elapsed, since the first publication of this Grammar, it can scarcely be necessary, in offering to the public a revised edition of the work, to make more than a passing allusion to its original plan or to the circumstances to which it owed its origin.

For some years previous to the date of its publication, the progress of classical learning in Europe, and particularly in Germany, had been such, as plainly to indicate the necessity of a corresponding advance in the manuals of Latin grammar employed in the schools of this country. Their deficiencies had indeed become so apparent, that various attempts had already been made to furnish a remedy by means of translations of German grammars; but none of these, however excellent in many respects, had seemed to be fully adapted to the purpose for which they were intended.

To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manuals and of the more recent German grammars was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end their attention was directed, first to the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language, secondly to a clearer exposition of its inflectional changes, thirdly to the proper basis of its syntax, and fourthly to greater precision in its rules and definitions.

The system of rules for the division and accentuation of Latin words, prepared in pursuance of the plan which has just been specified, was accordingly more copious than any previously found in the Latin grammars in common use in this country. For the purpose also of preventing the formation of erroneous habits of pronunciation in the early part of the student's course, the penultimate quantities of all Latin words occurring in the Grammar were carefully marked, unless determinable by some general rule, and the paradigms were divided and accented in such a manner as to indicate their true propunciation.

In their treatment of Latin etymology, the authors aimed to render its study less a mere exercise of memory, and in a greater degree an efficient aid in the general cultivation of the mental powers. The principal means adopted for this purpose consisted in the practical distinction, every where made in treating inflected words, between the root, or ground-form, and the termination.

The third prominent peculiarity of the original work was its direct derivation of the rules of Syntax from the logical analysis of sentences, and its distinct specification of the particular use of each of the several words of which a sentence is composed. This method of treating syntax—a method previously unknown in the schools of this country—has, since that period, been extensively adopted, and in some instances greatly extended, particularly in a portion of the English grammars recently published in this country, and has probably contributed more to the advancement of grammatical science, than any other innovation of modern times.

The errors noticed in the original work have been corrected, as successive editions have issued from the press, but no opportunity has occurred, until the present, of thoroughly revising it in every part. Two years of continuous labor have now been devoted to its revision, and to the purpose of rendering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it originally aspired to occupy.

In all the modifications which have now been made, I have aimed to accomplish these two purposes—to preserve, as far as possible, the identity of the work, and at the same time to bring it as near, as should be practicable, to the present state of philological science. Hence, while I have made no changes either in language or arrangement, but such as appeared to me quite necessary, I have omitted none which logical accuracy or requisite fulness of explanation seemed to demand. In doing even this it soon became evident, that the changes and additions must be more numerous, than would well consist with the convenient use of the old and the new editions in the same classes. Though not insensible of the trouble occasioned to the teacher by alterations in a familiar text-book, I could not but suppose, that such modifications as the progress of the last twenty years had rendered necessary, would still be welcomed by him, notwithstanding the personal inconvenience arising from the disturbance of his previous associations. To his pupils, who will have known no other form of the Grammar, than that in which it now appears, the work, it is believed, will not only be as easy of comprehension in its new, as in its old form, but in its practical application far more satisfactory.

Of the minor changes and additions occurring on almost every page, and even of the occasional rearrangement of small portions of the materials, it is unnecessary to speak particularly. The student familiar with former editions will at once detect these slight modifications, and note them in his memory for future use; and though he may fail to find a rule, exception, or remark on the page where he has been wont to see it, he will still meet with it in the same relative position,—in the same section and subdivision of the section in which it formerly appeared.

In the department of Orthoepy will now be found some account of the Continental mode of pronouncing Latin; and, by means of the joint exhibition of PREFACE. 5

this and of the English methods, the student will be able to use the Grammar with equal facility, whether choosing to adhere to the usual pronunciation of English and American scholars, or preferring that of the continental schools.

In the Etymology of nouns, no other alteration need be specified, except the introduction, in the third declension, of "Rules for forming the nominative singular from the root." These are copied, in a modified form, from the editor's First Latin Book. In themselves they are of considerable utility in showing the mutual relations between the sounds of certain letters, and they are also closely connected with corresponding changes in some of the verbal roots. In the Etymology of adjectives, besides the minor modifications already alluded to, a few changes in arrangement have been made in those sections which relate to Comparison. To pronouns have been added some remarks on Pronominal Adjectives, which seemed to require a more particular notice, than they had heretofore received, both in their relation to each other and to the Adverbial Correlatives. The Etymology of particles has been treated somewhat more fully than in former editions—a fulness especially observable in relation to adverbs and conjunctions, and which was rendered necessary by the more extended treatment of those particles in the revised Syntax.

In almost every section of the Syntax the student will meet with modifications and especially with additions, which, as in other parts of the work, are introduced in such a manner as seldom to interfere with the references made to former editions in the series based upon this Grammar. The principal exception to the latter remark is to be found in sections 247—251, which relate to certain uses of the ablative.

A comparison of the Prosody in the present and former editions will show, that it has been revised with minute care in every part. Similar attention has also been given to the Appendix, in which will be found some additions relating to Roman Money, Weights and Measures. For the greater convenience of the student the Index in this edition has been much enlarged.

In conclusion, I would briefly indicate the principal sources from which have been derived the various additions and corrections, to which allusion has been made. In preparing the original work, the earlier editions of Zumpt's Grammar were consulted at almost every step, and while frequent use was made of the grammars of Scheller, Grant, Adam, Ruddiman, Hickie and others, the treatises of Zumpt were even then regarded as the most valuable embodiment of the principles of Latin philology. It was therefore natural and almost unavoidable, in revising a work which had in so many points received both its form and its substance from the earlier labors of that distinguished grammarian, to look to his maturer works for many of the materials by means of which our original sketch should be made more complete. Accordingly I have constantly consulted the last edition of his Grammar, translated by Dr. Schmitz, and have freely incorporated in this edition such

6 PREFACE.

of its materials, as were suited to my purpose. In most cases his ideas have been either expressed in my own language, or in language so modified as to suit the general plan of my work. In the Etymology, and not unfrequently in the Syntax also, the copious Grammar of Ramshorn has furnished valuable materials; and the Grammars of Key and of Kühner, the latter translated by Prof. Champlin, have been consulted with profit and satisfaction. In the sections comprising conjunctions, and especially in those relating to grammatical analysis, I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to Prof. S. S. Greene of Brown University. To the sources already specified I must add the Latin Lexicon of Dr. Freund, in editing a translation of which I had frequent occasion to note such matters as promised to be of utility in the revision of this Grammar. The additions in the Appendix relating to Roman money, etc., are taken principally from Dr. Riddle's translation of Dr. Freund's School Dictionary. To these references I will only add, that such other notes relating to Latin philology, as I have made during the past twenty years, so far as they were adapted to my purpose, have either been used in my former occasional corrections, or are incorporated in the present edition.

In taking a final leave of the earliest of the elementary Latin works with which my name has been associated, and with which, in my own mind, must ever be connected the pleasant memory of my early friend and associate, Prof. Stoddard, I trust I shall be pardoned in commending it once more to the kind indulgence of the teachers of this country, and in expressing the hope that, in its present form, it will be deemed not altogether inworthy of a continuance of the favor which it has so long received. I cannot indeed venture to indulge the hope, that all the imperfections of the work have even now been removed, or that, in my attempts to render it more perfect, I may not sometimes have fallen into new errors; but this I can truly say, that since its first publication I have devoted much time to its revision, and have sought to manifest my sense of the kindness with which it has been received, by doing all in my power to render it less unworthy of public favor.

E. A. ANDREWS.

New Britain, Conn., Oct., 1857.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

- § 1. The Latin language is the language spoken by the ancient Romans. Latin Grammar teaches the principles of the Latin language. These relate,

To its written characters;
 To its pronunciation;
 To the classification and derivation of its words;

4. To the construction of its sentences;

5. To the quantity of its syllables, and its versification.

The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third, Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

- § 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters of written language, and the proper mode of spelling words.
- 1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-five letters. They have the same names as the corresponding characters in English. They are A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Romans used only the capital letters.

Ine Romans used only the capital terters.
 I and j were anciently but one character, as were likewise u and v.
 W is not found in Latin words, and k occurs only at the beginning of a few words before a, and even in these c is commonly used, except in their abbreviated form; as, K or Kal, for Kalendæ or Culendæ, the Calends.
 Y and z are found only in words derived from the Greek.

6. H, though called a letter, only denotes a breathing, or aspiration.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 3. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

(Liquide 1 m n r	vowels are	\dots $a, e, i, o, u, y.$
The consonants are divided into $ \begin{cases} \text{Labials,} & \dots & p, \ b, \ f, \ v. \\ \text{Palatals,} & \dots & c, \ g, \ k, \ q, \ j. \\ \text{Linguals,} & \dots & t, \ d. \\ \text{Sibilant,} & \dots & s. \\ \text{Double consonants,} & \dots & x, \ z. \\ \text{Aspirate,} & \dots & h. \end{cases} $	nsonants are ded into Sibilant, Double consona	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

2. X is equivalent to cs or gs; z to ts or ds; and, except in compound words, the double consonant is always written, instead of the letters which it represents. In some Greek words x is equivalent to chs.

DIPHTHONGS.

§ 4. Two vowels, in immediate succession, in the same syllable, are called a *diphthong*.

The diphthongs are ae, ai, au, ei, eu, oe, oi, ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, and yi. Ae and oe are frequently written together, a, a.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 5. The only mark of punctuation used by the ancients was a point, which denoted pauses of different length, according as it was placed at the top, the middle, or the bottom of the line. The moderns use the same marks of punctuation, in writing and printing Latin, as in their own languages, and assign to them the same power.

Marks of quantity and of accent are sometimes found in Latin authors, espe-

cially in elementary works:-

- 1. There are three marks of quantity, viz. ", ", "; the first denotes that the vowel over which it stands is short; the second, that it is long; the third, that it is doubtful, that is, sometimes long and sometimes short.
- 2. There are also three written accents—the acute ('), the grave ('), and the circumflex (^). These were used by the old grammarians to denote the rising and sinking of the voice in the Roman mode of pronouncing words. (See §§ 14 and 15.) In modern elementary Latin works, the acute marks the emphatic syllable of a word, (§ 16), the grave distinguishes certain particles from other words spelled in the same manner; as, quòd, because; quod, which; and the circumflex is placed over certain penultimate and final syllables that are formed by contraction.

The diæresis (") denotes that the vowel over which it stands does not form a diphthong with the preceding vowel; as, aër, the air. It is used principally with ae, ai, and oe.

ORTHOËPY.

§ 6. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

The ancient pronunciation of the Latin language being in a great measure lost, the learned, in modern times, have applied to it those principles which regular been conunciation of their own languages; and hence has arisen, in

different controlles, a great diversity of practice.

The coursystems now prevalent in Europe, may, however, be reduced to two—two—two continental and the English—the former prevailing, with only slight diversities, in most of the countries of continental Europe, and the latter in England. Their principal difference is found in the pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs, since, in both methods, the consonants are pronounced in nearly the same manner.

THE CONTINENTAL METHOD.

[According to this system, each of the vowels, when standing at the end of a syllable, is considered as having but one sound, which, however, may be either short or long. Thus,

REMARK. These sounds are sometimes slightly modified when followed by a consonant in the same syllable.]

THE ENGLISH METHOD.

In the following rules for dividing and pronouncing Latin words, regard has been had both to English analogy and to the laws of Latin accentuation. See § 14 and 15. The basis of this system is that which is exhibited by Walker in his "Pronuciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names." To pronounce correctly, according to this method, a knowledge of the following particulars is requisite:—

1. Of the sounds of the letters in all their combinations.

2. Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.

Of the place of the accent, both primary and secondary.
 Of the mode of dividing words into syllables.

OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

I. OF THE VOWELS.

§ 7. A vowel, when ending an accented syllable, has always its long English sound; as,

pa'-ter, de'-dit, vi'-vus, to'-tus, tu'-ba, Ty'-rus; in which the accented vowels are pronounced as in fatal, metre, vital, total, tutor, tyrant.

- 1. A, at the end of an unaccented syllable, has nearly the sound of a in father or in ah, but less distinct or prolonged; as, mu'-sa, e-pis'-tö-la, a-cer'-bus, Pal-a-mē'-des; pronounced mu'-zah, etc.
- 2. E, o, and u, at the end of an unaccented syllable, have nearly the same sound as when accented, but shorter and less distinct; as, re'-te, vo'-lo, u'-su-i.
 - 3. (a.) I final has always its long sound; as, qui, au it le-nt -ti.

 Rem. 1. The final i of tibi and sibi has its short sound.
- (b.) I, at the end of an unaccented syllable not find indistinct sound like short e; as, Fa'-bi-us (fa'-be-us), phi-los'-o-phus). (phe-los'-o-phus).

Exc. I has its long sound in the first syllable of a word the second of which is accented, when it either stands alone before a consonant, as in i-do'-ne-us, or ends a syllable before a vowel, as in fi-ë'-bam.

REM. 2. Y is always pronounced like i in the same situation.

§ 8. A vowel has always its *short* English sound, when followed by a consonant in the same syllable; as,

mag'-nus, reg'-num fin'-go, hoc, fus'-tis, cyg'nus, in which the vowels are pronounced as in manuel, seldom, finish, copy, lustre, symbol.

EXCEPTION 1. A, when it follows qu before dr and rt, has the sounds of a tip quadrant and in quart; as, qua'-dro, quad-ra-gin'-ta, quar'-tus. In other connections a before r has the sound of a in part; as, par-ti-ceps, ar'-ma; except when followed by another r, as in par-ri-ci'-da.

Exc. 2. Es, at the end of a word, is pronounced like the English word ease; as, ig'-nes, au'-des.

Exc. 3. Os, at the end of plural cases, is pronounced like ose in dose; as, nos, il'-los, dom'-ĭ-nos.

Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds; as, post'-quam, post'-e-a; but not its derivatives; as, pos-trē'-mus.

Exc. 5. E, i and y before final r, or before r in a syllable not final, when followed in the next syllable by any other consonant, except r, have the sound of e and i in the English words her and her as, her, her, her, her her

II. OF THE DIPHTHONGS.

§ 9. Ae and oe are always diphthongs unless separated by diæresis. They are pronounced as e would be in the same situation; as, α' -tas, α' -ta

1. Ai, ei, oi, and yi, usually have the vowels pronounced separately. When they are accented, and followed by another vowel, the i is pronounced like initial y, and the vowel before it has its long sound; as, Maia, Pompeius, Troia, Harpyia; pronounced Ma'-ya, Pom-pe'-yus, Tro'-ya, Har-py'-ya.

REMARK 1: Ei, when a diphthong and not followed by another vowel, is pronounced like i; as in hei, om'-neis.

2. Au, when a diphthong, is pronounced like aw; as, laus, au'-rum, pronounced laws, etc.

REM. 2. In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters au are pronounced separately; as, Men-e-lā-us.

3. Eu, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long u; as, heu, Orpheus (or'-phuse), Eu-phrā-tes.

REM. 3. The letters eu are pronounced separately in the terminations eus and eum of Latin nouns, and of all adjectives, whether freek or Latin, except neuter; as, ur'-ce-us, me'-us, me'-um, e'-um. In other strations they form a diphthong; as, Eu-rō'-pa, Thē'-seus, e'-heu.

4. Ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, when diphthongs, are pronounced like wa, we, etc.; as, lin'-gua, quĕ-ror, sua'-de-o, quŏ'-tus, ĕ'-quus. They are always diphthongs after q, usually also after g, and often after s.

5. Ui in cui and huic, when monosyllables, is pronounced like wi, and by some like long i.

III. OF THE CONSONANTS.

§ 10. The consonants have, in general, the same power in Latin as in English words.

The following cases, however, require particular attention.

C.

C has the sound of s before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs α , α , and cu; as, ce'-do, ci'-bus, $C\alpha'$ -sar, $c\alpha'$ -lum, ceu, Cy'-rus. In other situations, it has the sound of k; as, Ca'-to, cr dus, lac.

1. Ch has always the sound of k; as, cha (kar'-tah), machina

(mak'-ĕ-nah).

Exc. C, following or ending an accented syllable, before i followed by a vowel, and also before eu and yo, has the sound of sh; as, socia (so'-she-ah), caduceus (ca-du'she-us), Sicyon (sish'-e-on).

REMARK. In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of c and g seems to have been retained in all their combinations.

G.

G has its soft sound, like j, before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs α and α ; as ge'-nus, ag'-i-lis, Gy'-ges, $G\alpha$ - $t\bar{u}'$ -li. In other situations, it has its hard sound, as in bag, go.

Exc. When g comes before p soft, it coalesces with it in sound; as, agger (aj'-er), exaggeratio (ex-aj-e-ra'-she-o).

S.

§ 11. S has generally its hissing sound, as in so, thus.

Exc. 1. (a.) When si followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by a consonant in an accented syllable, the s has the sound of sh; as, Per'-si-a (per'-she-a).

(b.) But when si or zi followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by an accented vowel, the s or z has the sound of zh; as, As-pa'-si-a (as-pa'-zhe-ah), Sa-ba'-zi-a (sa-ba'-zhe-ah).

Note. In a few proper names, s preceded by a vowel in an accented syllable and followed by i before another vowel, has the sound, not of zh, but of sh; as, A'-si-a (a'-sh-a): so Sosia, Theodosia, Lysias.

Exc. 2. S, at the end of a word, after e, α , au, b, m, n, and r, has the sound of z; as, res, as, as,

English analogy has also occasioned the s in Cx'-sar, cx-sū'-ra, mi'-ser, ms'-sa, re-sū'-u-um, cau'-sa, ro'-sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of z. Cx-a-re'-a, and the oblique cases of Cx-ar, retain the hissing sound; so likewise the compounds of tr-ans; as, tr-ans'-e-o.

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§ 12. 1. T, following or ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, has the sound of sh; as, ratio (ra'-she-o), Sulpitius (sul-pish'-e-us).

Exc. T, in such case, retains its hard sound (a) after s, t, or x; as, Sal-lus'-ti-us, Brut'-ti-i, Sex'-ti-us: (b) in proper names in tion and tyon; as, Eu-ryt'-i-on, Am-phic'-ty-on; and (c) in old infinitives in er; as, flec'-ti-er, for flec'-ti.

X.

2. X, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of z; at the end, that of ks; as, Xenophon (zen'-o-phon); axis (ak'-sis).

Exc. 1. When ex or ux is followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, x has the sound of gz; as, exemplum (eg-zem'-plum), ux-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us), inexhaustus (in-eg-zaus'-tus).

Exc. 2. X, ending a reaccented syllable before i followed by a vowel, and before u ending a syllable, has the power of ksh; as, noxius (nok'-she-us),

pexui (pek'-shu-i).

REMARK. Ch and ph, bure th, in the beginning of a word, are silent; as, Chthonia (tho'-ni-a), Phthia (thi'-a).— Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is not sounded:—mne-mon'-i-ca, gna'-vus, tme'-sis, Cle'-si-as, Ptol-e-ma'-us, psal'-lo.

OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTIMATE AND FINAL SYLLABLES.

- § 13. 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.
- 2. A short syllable requires, in pronunciation, half the time of a long one.

REM. The penultimate syllable, or penult, is the last syllable but one. The antepenuls is the last syllable but two.

The quantity of a syllable is generally to be learned from the rules of prosody, §§ 282—301; but for the convenience of the student, the following general rules are here inserted:—

3. A vowel before another vowel or h is short.

4. Diphthongs, not beginning with u, are long.

- 5. A vowel before x, z, j, or any two consonants, except a mute followed by a liquid, is long by position, as it is called.
- 6. A vowel naturally short before a mute followed by a liquid is common, i. e. either long or short.

In this Grammar, when the quantity of a penult is determined by one of the preceding rules, it is not marked; in other cases, except in dissyllables, the proper mark is written over its vowel.

over its vowel.

To pronounce Latin words correctly, it is necessary to ascertain the quantities of their last two syllables only; and the rules for the quantities of final syllables would, for this purpose, be unnecessary, but for the occasional addition of enclitics. As these are generally monosyllables, and, for the purpose of accentuation, are considered as parts of the words to which they are annexed, they cause the final syllable of the original word to become the penult of the compound. But as the enclitics begin with a consonant, the final vowels of all words ending with a consonant, if previously short, are, by the addition of an enclitic, made long by postion. It is necessary, therefore, to learn the quantities of those final syllables only which end with a vowel.

OF ACCENTUATION.

I. OF LATIN ACCENTS.

\$ 14. 1. Accent, in Latin, signifies the rising and falling of the voice in pronouncing the syllables of a Latin word. It is a general rule of the Latin language, that every word has its accent. The enclitics, however, have no accent of their own, but they modify the accent of the words to which they are annexed, and prepositions lose their accent, when they precede the cases which they govern.

they govern.

2. The Latin language has three accents, the acute ('), or rising tone, the grave ('), or falling tone, and the circumflex (^), composed of the acute and the

grave, i. e. of the rising and the falling tone.

3. A monosyllable, when short by nature, takes the acute, when long by nature, the circumflex accent; as, pix, $\acute{e}t$, $p\acute{a}rs$; $d\^{o}s$, $f\^{u}s$, $sp\^{e}s$.

4. In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as, $p\ddot{a}'$ ter, $m\ddot{a}'$ -ter, pen'-na.

Rem. 1. Words of two syllables have the circumflex accent, when the vowel of the penult is naturally long and that of the last syllable short; as, $R\delta - m\tilde{a}$, $m\tilde{t} - s\tilde{a}$, $l\tilde{u} - c\tilde{s}$, $j\tilde{u} - r\tilde{s}$; if otherwise, they have the acute; as, $k\delta' - m\delta$, $d\delta'\tilde{a}s$, $R\delta' - m\tilde{a}$ (abl.), and $ar' - t\tilde{e}$, in which a is long only by position.

5. In words of more than two syllables, if the *penult* is *long*, it is accented; but if it is *short*, the accent is on the *antepenult*; as, *a-mī'-cus*, *dom'-ī-nus*.

REM. 2. When the accent of a word of more than two syllables falls upon the penult, it may be either the circumflex or the acute according as the last syllable is short or long. The antepenult can take no accent except the acute, and in no case can the accent be drawn farther back than to the antepenult.

Exc. Vocatives of the second declension in i, instead of ie, from nominatives in ius, and genitives in i, instead of ii, are accented as they would be, if the rejected letters were annexed, i. e. with the acute upon the penult, even when it is short; as, Vir-gil-i; Va-bi'-ri, in-gi'-ni. So, also, the compounds of facio with words which are not prepositions; as, cal-e-fā'-cit, tep-e-fā'-cit.

§ 15. If the penult is common, the accent, in prose, is upon the antepenult; as, vol'-ŭ-cris, phar'-ĕ-tra, ib'-ĭ-que: but genitives in ius, in which i is common, accent their penult in prose; as, u-nĭ'-us, is-ti'-us.

REM. 3. All the syllables of a Latin word, except that on which the acute or circumflex accent falls, are supposed to have the grave accent, and were pronounced with the lower tone.

1. The rules for the accentuation of compound and simple words

are the same; as, se'-cum, sub'-e-o.

2. In accentuation, the enclitics que, ne, ve, and also those which are annexed to pronouns,* are accounted constituent parts of the words to which they are subjoined; as, i'-ta, it'-ă-que; vi'-rum, vi-rum'-que.

II. OF ENGLISH ACCENTS.

§ 16. Accent, in English, is a particular stress of voice upon certain syllables of words. Cf. § 5, 2.

According to the English method of pronouncing Latin, a word may have two, three, or even four accents. That accent which is nearest to the termination of the word, and which always corresponds in position with the Latin accent, is called the primary or principal accent, and the secondary accent is that which next precedes the primary. The third and fourth accents, in like manner, precede the secondary, and are subject in all respects to the same rules; as, pa-ter, ma-ter, ser-mo-nes, dom'-t-mis; pe-ric-u-lum, con'-ju-ra'-ti-o, op''-por-tu'-ni-ta'-tes, ex-er'''-ci-ta''-ti-on'-i-bus'-que.

1. If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary

accent is on the first; as, mod"-e-rā'-tus, tol"-e-rab'-t-lis.

2. If three or four syllables stand before the primary accent, the secondary accent is placed, sometimes on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable; as, de-mon'-stra-ban'-tur, ad''-o-les-cen'-ti-a.

3. Some words which have only four syllables before the primary accent, and all which have more than four, have three accents; as, mod'''-e-ra''-ti-ō'-nis, tol'''-e-ra-bil''-i-ō'-rem, ex-er'''-ci-ta''-ti-ō'-nis.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

VOWELS.

§ 17. Every Latin word is to be divided into as many syllables, as it has separate vowels and diphthongs.

REMARK. In the following rules, the term vowel includes not only single vowels, but diphthongs; and when a particular vowel is mentioned, a diphthong, also, ending with that vowel is intended.

CONSONANTS.

SPECIAL RULES.

- § 18. Remark. The following special rules, relating to particular letters or to particular combinations of letters, are in all cases to be regarded rather than the general rules, §§ 19—23, when the latter are inconsistent with the former.
- 1. *H*, when standing alone between two vowels, is always joined to the vowel that follows it.

Thus, mi'-hi, tra'-he-re, co'-hors, co''-hor-ta'-ti-o.

^{*}These are te, met, pte, ce, eine, and dem; as, tute, egomet, meapte, hicce, hiccine, idem.

2. Ch, ph, and th, in the division of words into syllables, are considered, not as separate letters, but as single aspirated mutes, and hence are never separated.

Thus, A-chil'-les, Ach''-ra-dī'-na, Neph'-ĕ-le, Te'-thys.

3. Gl, ul, and thl, when standing alone between any two vowels, unless the first be u, and bl after u are always separated.

Thus, Æg'-le, Ag-lau'-rus, At'-las, ath-let'-ĭ-cus; —Pub'-li-us, Pub-lic'-ŏ-la, res-

pub'-lī-ca.

4. In writing syllables, x, when standing alone between two vowels, is united to the vowel before it, but, in pronouncing such syllables, its elementary sounds are separated.

GENERAL RULES.

I. SIMPLE WORDS.

§ 19. A.—A single Consonant between two Vowels.

1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, between the *last two vowels* of a word, or between the vowels of any two *unaccented* syllables, must be joined to the latter vowel.

Thus, t in $p\check{a}'$ -ter and au'-tem; th in ω' -ther; cl in Hi-er'- δ -cles; q in \check{a}' -qua; cr in \check{a}' -cris and vol'- \check{a} -cris; chr in a'-chras; r in tol''-e-ra-bil'-i-us; m in el''-y-mo-lo'-gi-a; l in an'-bu- $l\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}'$ -ri-us; and gr in per''-e-gri-na'-ti-o. Respecting ch and ch of § 18, 2.

Exc. Tib'-i and sib'-i are commonly excepted.

§ 20. 2. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, before the vowel of an accented syllable, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, t in i-tin'- \check{e} -ra; d in vi- $d\check{e}$ '-to; th in α -the'-ri-us; cl in Eu-cl'-des and Her"-a-cle'-a; gr in a-gres'-tis and a-gric'- \check{o} -la; pr in ca-pre'- \check{o} -lus; q in a-qua'-ri-us; and phr in Eu-phra' tes.

§ 21. 3. A single consonant after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a penult, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, m in dom'-i-nus and dom''-i-na'-ti-o; t in pat'-ë-ra; th in Scyth'-i-a; and q in aq'-ui-la (ak'-we-lah), and Aq''-ui-ta'-ni-a (ak''-we-ta'-ne-ah).

4. When a mute with l or r follows the vowel of any accented syllable, except the penult, the mute is to be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, cr in ac'-ri-ter, ac''-ri-mo'-ni-a; tr in det''-ri-men'-tum; pr in cap'-ri-pes, cap''-ri-mul'-gus, phl in Paph''-la-go'-ni-a; and phr in Aph''-ro-dis'-i-a. Respecting phl and phr of. § 18, 2.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE 3D AND 4TH RULES.

Exc. 1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, after an accented a, e, or o, and before two vowels the first of which is e, i, or y, must be joined to the syllable following the accent.

Thus, d in ra'-di-us, ta'-di-um, me''-di-d'-tor; r in ha'-re-o, Ca''-ry-a'-tes; ch in bra'-chi-um; q in re'-qui-es, re''-qui-es'-co; tr in pa'-tri-us, E-no'-tri-a; and r and l in ce''-re-a'-li-a.

Exc. 2. A single consonant or a mute with l or r, after an accented u, must be joined to the vowel following it.

Thus, r in lu'-rï-dus, au'-re-us; cr in Eu'-cri-tus; gl in ju'-glans; and pl in Nau'-pli-us, du'-pli-co, and du''-pli-ca'-ti-o. Cf. § 18, 3.

§ 22. B.—Two Consonants between two Vowels.

Any two consonants, except a mute followed by l or r in the cases before mentioned, when standing between two vowels, must be separated.

Thus, rp in cor'-pus, rm in for'-ma and ger-mā'nus; rv in ca-ter'-va; sc in ad-o-les'-cens; nn in an'-nus; phth in aph'-tha; cch in Bac'-chus and Bac''-cha-na'-li-a; and thl in ath-lē'-ta.

C.—Three or four Consonants between two Vowels.

1. When three consonants stand between any two vowels, the last, or, if that be l or r after a mute, the two last, are joined to the latter yowel.

Thus, mpt in emp'-tor, ad-emp'-ti-o; str in fe-nes'-tra; mpl in ex-em'-plum; rthr in ar-thri'-tis.

2. When four consonants stand between two vowels, two are joined to each vowel; as, nstr in trans-trum.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 23. 1. In dividing a compound word into syllables the component parts are to be separated, if the former part ends with a consonant; as, ab-es'-se, in'-ers, cir'-cum-er'-ro, su'-pēr-est, sub'-t-tus, præter'-e-a, trans'-ĭ-tur, sub'-stru-o. So, also, if a consonant is inserted to prevent hiatus, it is joined to the preceding vowel; as, prod'-e-o, red'-e-o, sed-it'-i-o.

2. But if the former part either ends with a vowel, or has dropped its termination, it is to be divided like a simple word; as, def'-e-ro, dil'-i-gens, be-nev'-o-lus, præs'-to, eg'-ō-met;—po'-tes, po-tes'-tis, an''-i-mad-ver'-to, ve'-ne-o (from venum, eo), mag-nan'-i-mus, am-bā'-ges,

lon-qœ'-vus.

ETYMOLOGY.

- § 24. 1. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various inflections.
- 2. The classes, into which words are divided in reference to their signification, are called Parts of Speech.

NOUNS. 19

- 3. The parts of speech in Latin are eight—Substantive or Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.
- 4. The first four are inflected; the last four, which are sometimes called Particles, are not inflected, except that some adverbs change their termination to express comparison.
- Rem. Substantives, pronouns, and adjectives are often included by grammarians under the general term nouns; but, in this Grammar, the word noun is used as synonymous with substantive only.
- § 25. 1. To verbs belong Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, which partake of the meaning of the verb, and the inflection of the noun.
- 2. Inflection, in Latin grammar, signifies a change in the termination of a word. It is of three kinds—declension, conjugation, and comparison.
- 3. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, gerunds, and supines, are declined; verbs are conjugated, and adjectives and adverbs are compared.

NOUNS.

- § 26. 1. A substantive or noun is the name of an object.
- 2. A proper noun is the name of an individual object; as, Cæsar; Rōma, Rome; Tiberis, the Tiber.
- 3. A common or appellative noun is the name of a class of objects, to each of which it is alike applicable; as, homo, man or a man; avis, a bird; quercus, an oak; leo, a lion; mendacium, a falsehood.
- 4. A collective noun is one which, in the singular number, denotes a collection of individuals; as, exercitus, an army.
- REM. 1. The following are examples of nouns used as collectives, viz. exercitus, gens, juventus, multitūdo, nobilitas, plebs, popūlus, turba, vis, and vulgus.
- 5. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute; as, bonitas, goodness; gaudium, joy; festinatio, haste.
- REM. 2. A concrete, in distinction from an abstract noun, is one which denotes an object that has an actual and independent existence; as, Rōma, hŏmo, popūlus, ferrum.
- 6. A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross; as, lignum, wood; ferrum, iron; cĭbus, food.
- Rem. 3. Proper, abstract, and material nouns become common, when employed to denote one or more of a class of objects. A verb in the infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.
 - 7. To nouns belong gender, number, and case.
- REM. 4. Adjectives and participles have likewise different genders, numbers, and cases, corresponding to those of nouns.

GENDER.

- § 27. 1. The gender of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex.
- 2. Nouns have three genders—the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.
 Those nouns are naturally masculine or feminine, which are used to de-

signate the sexes; as, vir, a man; mulier, a woman.

5. Those are grammatically masculine or feminine, which, though denoting objects that are neither male nor female, take adjectives of the form appropriated to nouns denoting the sexes.

Thus, dominus, a lord, is naturally masculine, because it denotes a male; but sermo, speech, is grammatically masculine, because though not indicative of sex, it takes an adjective of that form which is appropriated to nouns denoting males.

- 6. The grammatical gender of Latin nouns depends either on their signification, or on their declension and termination. The following are the general rules of gender, in reference to signification. Many exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur: these will be specified under the several declensions.
- § 28. MASCULINES. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all male beings are masculine; as, Homerus, Homer; pater, a father; consul, a consul; ĕquus, a horse.

As proper names usually follow the gender of the general name under which they are comprehended; hence,

2. Names of rivers, winds, and months, are masculine, because fluvius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine; as, Tiberis, the Tiber; Aquilo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.

Exc. Styx and some names of rivers in a and e are feminine. \$\\$62, and 41, 1.

- 3. Names of mountains are sometimes masculine, because mons is masculine; as, Othrys, a mountain of Thessaly; but they usually follow the gender of their termination; as, hie* Atlas, hee Ida, hoe Soracte.
- § 29. Feminines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all female beings are feminine; as, Helen; mater, a mother; juvenca, a heifer.
- 2. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, nāvis, insŭla, fabŭla, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Ægyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; pirus, a pear-tree; nardus, spikenard; Centaurus, the ship Centaur; Samos, the name of an island; Eunüchus, the Eunuch, a comedy of Terence; amethystus, an amethyst.

Exc. Names of countries and islands in um, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{v}rum$, are neuter.—Names of towns in i, $\bar{v}rum$; four in o, $\bar{v}uis$, vis. Tuxino, Hippo, Narbo, and Sulmo, with Tunes, Tuxas, and Canopus, are masculine. Names of towns in um or on, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{v}rum$ those in e and ur of the third declension, indeclinable nouns in i and y, and some barbarous names, as Suthul, Hispul and Gadir are neuter.—Names of trees and plants in er of the third declension, (§ 60), with baccar and robus are neuter. Names of trees and plants in er of with bleaster, binaster, Styrax and unëdo are masculine.—A few names of gems in us, i, (§ 50), are also masculine.

^{*} To distinguish the gender of Latin nouns, grammarians write hic before the masculine, have before the feminine, and hoe before the neuter.

§ 30. COMMON AND DOUBTFUL GENDER. Some words are either masculine or feminine. These, if they denote things animate, are said to be of the common gender; if things inanimate, of the doubtful gender.

Of the former are parens, a parent; bos, an ox or cow: of the latter, finis, an end.

The following nouns are of the common gender:-

Adolescens, a youth. Aff inis, a relative by mar- Grus, a crane. riage. Ales, a bird. Antistes, a chief priest. Auctor, an author. Augur, an augur. Bos, an ox or cow. Cănis, a dog. Cīvis, a citizen. Comes, a companion. Conjux, a spouse. Consors, a consort. Conviva, a guest. Custos, a keeper. Dux, a leader.

Exsul, an exile. Hospes, a guest, a host. Hostis, an enemy. Index, an informer. Infans, an infant. Interpres, an interpreter. Jüdex, a judge. Juvěnis, a youth. Martyr, a martyr. Mīles, a soldier. Municeps, a burgess. Mus, a mouse. Nēmo, nobody. Obses, a hostage. Patruelis, a cousin.

Palumbes, a wood-pigeon. Părens, a parent. Par, a mate. Præses, a president. Præsul, a chief priest. Princeps, a prince or princess. Serpens, a serpent. Sacerdos, a priest or priestess. Satelles, a life-guard. Sus, a swine. Testis, a witness. Vātes, a prophet. Verna, a slave. Vindex, an avenger.

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns:-

Conjux, atque parens, princeps, patruelis, et infans, Affinis, vindex, jūdex, dux, mīles, et hostis, Augur, et antistes, juvenis, conviva, săcerdos, Mūnī-que-ceps, vātēs, adoléscens, cīvis, et auctor, Custos, nēmo, comes, testis, sus, bos-que, canis-que, Pro consorte tori par, præsul, verna, satelles, Mus-que obses, consors, interpres, et exsul, et hospes.

- § 31. 1. When nouns of the common gender denote males, they take a masculine adjective; when they denote females, a feminine.
- The following are either masculine or feminine in sense, but masculine only in grammatical construction:—

Artifex, an artist. Auspex, a soothsayer. Eques, a horseman.

Fur, a thief. Hēres, an heir.

Lătro, a robber. Liběri, children. Homo, a man or woman. Pedes, a footman.

To these may be added personal appellatives of the first declension; as, advena, a stranger; and some gentile nouns; as, Persa, a Persian.

§ 32. 1. The following, though masculine or feminine in sense, are feminine only in construction:-

Copiæ, troops. Custodiæ, guards. Excubiæ, sentinels. Opěræ, laborers. Proles, Suboles, offspring. Vigiliæ, watchmen.

2. Some nouns, signifying persons, are neuter, both in their termination and construction; as,

Acroāma, a buffoon.
Auxilia, auxiliaries.

Mancipium, a slave.

Scortum, Prostibulum, a prostitute.

- 3. (a.) In some personal appellatives masculines and feminines are distinguished by different terminations affixed to the same root. The masculines end in us, er, o, tor, etc.; the feminines in a or trix; as, cŏquus, cŏqua; magister, magistra; lēno, lēna; inventor, inventrix; tibīcen, tibicina; ăvus, avia; rex, regīna; poēta, poētria.
- (b.) So also in some names of animals; as, ĕquus, ĕqua; gallus, gallina; leo, lea and leæna. Sometimes the words are wholly different; as, taurus, vacca.
- 4. Some names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine without regard to difference of sex; as, anguis, serpens, dāma, talpa, tigris, coluber and colubra, etc.
- § 33. EPICENES. Names of animals which include both sexes, but admit of an adjective of one gender only, are called *epicene*. These commonly follow the gender of their terminations.

Thus, passer, a sparrow, corvus, a raven, are masculine; aquila, an eagle, vulpes, a fox, are feminine; though each of them is used to denote both sexes.

Note. This class includes the names of animals, in which the distinction of sex is seldom attended to. When it is necessary to mark the sex, mas or femina is usually added.

- § 34. Neuters. Nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, are said to be of the neuter gender; such are,
 - 1. All indeclinable nouns; as, fas, nĕfas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
- 2. Names of letters; as, o longum, long o. But these are sometimes feminine, litëra being understood.
- 3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning; as, pater est dissyllabum; pater is dissyllabic.
- 4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs, and other particles, used substantively; as scire tuum, your knowledge; ultimum vale, the last farewell; hoc diu, this (word) diu.

REMARK. 1. Words derived from the Greek retain the gender which they have in that language.

REM. 2. Some nouns have different genders in the singular and plural, and are called heterogeneous nouns. See § 92.

NUMBER.

- § 35. 1. (a.) Number, in nouns, is the form by which they denote whether they represent one object or more than one.
- (b.) Latin nouns have two numbers,—the singular and the plural,—which are distinguished by their terminations. The singular number denotes one object; the plural, more than one.

PERSON.

2. The person of a noun or pronoun is the character sustained by the object which it represents, as being the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken of.

Hence there are three persons. The speaker is of the *first* person, the person addressed is of the *second* person, and the person or thing spoken of is of the *third* person.

CASES.

§ 36. Many of the relations of objects, which, in English, are denoted by prepositions, are, in Latin, expressed by a change of termination.

Cases are those terminations of nouns, which denote their relations to other words. Latin nouns have six cases; viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative.

REMARK. Though there are six cases in each number, no noun has in each number so many different terminations.

§ 37. 1. The nominative denotes the relation of a subject to a

finite verb; as, ego scribo, I write. Caius dicit, Caius says.

- 2. The genitive denotes origin, possession, and many other relations, which, in English, are expressed by the preposition of or by the possessive case; as, Vita Casăris, the life of Casar, or Casar's life.
- 3. The dative denotes that to or for which any thing is, or is done; as, Ille mihi librum dedit, He gave the book to me.

4. The accusative is either the object of an active verb, or of cer-

tain prepositions, or the subject of an infinitive.

5. The vocative is the form appropriated to the name of any ob-

ject which is addressed.

6. The ablative denotes *privation*, and many other relations, especially those expressed in English by the prepositions with, from, in, or by.

REMARK. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called casus recti, i. e. the uninflected cases; and the others, casus obliqui; i. e. the oblique or inflected cases.

DECLENSIONS.

§ 38. The regular forming of the several cases in both numbers, by annexing the appropriate terminations to the root, is called *declension*.

The Latin language has five declensions or modes of declining nouns, distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, which, in the first declension, ends in α , in the second in i, in the third in is, in the fourth in $\bar{u}s$, and in the fifth in $e\bar{\imath}$

§ 39. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the terminations or case-endings of the five declensions.

TERMINATIONS.

Singular.

				Dingan	., .				
	I.	П.		l II	I.		IV.		V.
		М.	N.	M.	N.	М.		N.	-
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	ă, æ, æ, ăm, ă,	ŭs, ĕr, ī, ō, ŭm, ĕ, ĕr,	ŭm,	ŏr, etc. ĭi ēm,(ĭm)	s,), ĕ, etc.	ŭs, uī, ŭm, ŭs,	ũs,	ū, ū, ū,	ēs, eï, eï, ĕm,
Abl.	ā.	ē, er, ō.	uii,	ŏr, etc. ĕ, (i.)	us,	ū.	ū,	ēs,

Plural.

Nom.	æ,	ī,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs, uă,	l ēs,
Gen.	ārum,	ī, ōrŭm,	•	ŭm, (iŭm),	uŭm,	ērum.
Dat.	īs,	īs.		ĭbùs.	ĭbŭs. (ŭbŭs).	ēbŭs.
Acc.	ās,	ōs,	ă.	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs, uă, uŭm, ibŭs, (úbŭs), ūs, uă, ūs, uă, is, uă, ibŭs, (ŭbŭs).	ēs.
Voc.	æ.	ī,	ă.	ēs. ă. (iă).	นิร. บลั.	ēs.
Abl.		is. "	~' l	ĭbŭs.	ibus. (ubus).	ēbŭs.
		100		* ~ UD*	abus).	OD also

Remarks.

- § 40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third declension, are very numerous. Sec §§ 55, 58, 62, 66.
- 2. The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, always ends in m.
- 3. The vocative singular is like the nominative in all Latin nouns, except those in us of the second declension.
 - 4. The nominative and vocative plural always end alike.
 - 5. The genitive plural always ends in um.
- 6. The dative and ablative plural always end alike;—in the 1st and 2d declensions, in is; in the 3d, 4th, and 5th, in bus.
- 7. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, always ends in s.
- 8. Nouns of the neuter gender have the accusative and vocative like the nominative, in both numbers; and these cases, in the plural, always end in a.
- 9. The 1st and 5th declensions contain no nouns of the neuter gender, and the 4th and 5th contain no proper names.
- 10. Every inflected word consists of two parts—a root, and a termination. The root or crude form, is the part which is not changed by inflection. The termination is the part annexed to the root. The root of a declined word may be found by removing the termination of any of its oblique cases. The case commonly selected for this purpose is the genitive singular.
- 11. The preceding table exhibits terminations only. In the fifth declension, the e of the final syllable, though unchanged, is considered as belonging to the termination.

FIRST DECLENSION.

§ 41. Nouns of the first declension end in \check{a} , \bar{e} , $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{e}s$. Those in a and e are feminine; those in as and es are masculine.

Latin nouns of the first declension end only in a. They are thus declined:

	Singular.			Plural.	-
Nom.	mū'-să,	a muse;	Nom.	mu'-sæ,	muses,
Gen.	mu'-sæ,	of a muse;	Gen.	mu-sā'-rŭm,	of muses,
Dat.	mu'-sæ,	to a muse;	Dat.	mu'-sīs,	to muses,
Acc.	mu'-săm,	a muse;	Acc.	mu'-sās,	muses,
Voc.	mu'-să,	O muse;	Voc.	mu'-sæ,	O muses;
Abl.	mu'-sā,	with a muse.	Abl.	mu'-sīs,	with muses.

In like manner decline

Au'-la, a hall.	Lit'-ĕ-ra, a letter.	Sa-git'-ta, an arrow.
Cu'-ra, care.	Lus-cin'-i-a, a nightingale.	Stel'-la, a star.
Ga'-le-a, a helmet.	Mach'-ĭ-na, a machine.	Tŏ'-ga, a gown.
In'-sŭ-la, an island.	Pen'-na, a feather, a quill.	Vi'-a, a way.

NOTE. As the Latin language has no article, appellative nouns may be rendered either with or without the English articles a, an, or the, according to their connection.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 42. 1. Names proper and appellative of men, as, Sulla, Cinna; poēla, a poet; nauta, a sailor; and names of rivers, though ending in a, are masculine; § 28, 1 and 2. But the following names of rivers have been used as feminine: viz. Albūla, Allīa, Druentia, Garumna, Himěra, Matrona, Mosella, Trebia. Lēthe is always feminine.

Ossa and Œta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.

2. Hadria, the Adriatic sea, dāma in Virgil and Statius, and talpa in Virgil, are masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 43. Genitive singular. 1. The poets sometimes formed the

genitive singular in āī; as, aula, gen. aulāī.

2. Familia, after pater, mater, filius, or filia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matrisfamilias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiarum. Some other words anciently formed their genitive in the same manner.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of patronymics in es, of several compounds in cŏla and gĕna, and of some names of nations, is sometimes, especially in poetry, formed in um instead of ārum; as, Æneădum, Cœlicŏlum, terrigĕnum, Lapĭthum. So amphŏrum, drach-

mum, for amphorārum, drachmārum.

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have sometimes ābus instead of is, in the dative and ablative plural, especially when it is necessary to distinguish them from the same cases of masculines in us of the second declension having the same root; as, filiis et filiābus, to sons and daughters.

Dea, a goddess. Filia, a daughter.

Equa, a mare. Mula, a she mule.

The use of a similar termination in anima, asina, liberta, nata, conserva, and some other words, rests on inferior authority.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 44. Nouns of the first declension in \tilde{e} , $\tilde{a}s$, and $\tilde{e}s$, and some also in \tilde{a} , are Greek. Greek nouns in \tilde{a} are declined like musa, except that they sometimes have $\tilde{a}n$ in the accusative singular; as, Ossa; acc. Ossam, or Ossan.

Greek nouns in e, as, and es, are thus declined in the singular number:-

_ , ,	•	
N. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	N. Æ-nē'-ās,	N. An-chī'-sēs,
G. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pēs,	G. Æ-nē'-æ,	G. An-chī'-sæ,
D. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pæ,	D. Æ-nē'-æ,	D. An-chī'-sæ,
Ac. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pēn,	Ac. Æ-nē'-am or an,	Ac. An-chī'-sēn,
V. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	V. Æ-nē'-ā,	V. An-chī'-sē or ā,
Ab. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē.	Ab. Æ-nē'-ā.	Ab. An-chī'-sā or ē.

§ 45. In like manner decline

Al'-o-e, aloes.	Ti-ā'-ras, a turban.
E-pit'-ò-me, an abridgment.	Co-mē'-tes, a comet.
This'-be.	Dy-nas'-tes, a ruler.
Bo'-rĕ-as, the north wind.	Pri-am'-i-des, a son of Priam
Mi'-das.	Py-ri'-tes, a kind of stone.

- 1. Most proper names in es, except patronymics, follow the third declension; but in the accusative they often have both em and en, and in the vocative both es and e. See §§ 80, IV, and 81.
- 2. Greek nouns of the first declension, which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.
- 3. The Latins frequently change the terminations of Greek nouns in ēs and ē into ā; as, Atrīdas, Atrīda, a son of Atreus; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geomētres, geomētres, geomētres, a geometrician; Circe, Circa; epitôme, epitôme, grammatice, grammatica, grammat; rhetorice, rhetorica, oratory.—So also tiāras, tiāra.

SECOND DECLENSION.

§ 46. Nouns of the second declension end in er, ir, us, um, os, on. Those ending in um and on are neuter; the rest are masculine.

Nouns in er, us, and um, are thus declined:

SINGULAR.

	DELIGO	2322200	
A lord.	A son-in-law.	A field.	A kingdom.
N. dom'-I-ni	ís, gĕ'-nĕr,	ă'-gĕr,	reg'-num,
G. dom'-I-nī	, gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nī,
L dom'-I-no		a'-grō,	reg'-nō,
Ac. dom'-I-ni	ím, gen'-ĕ-rŭm,	a'-grŭm,	reg'-nŭm,
V. dom'-ĭ-nĕ	ge'-nĕr,	a'-gĕr,	reg'-num,
Ab. dom'-i-no	o. gen'-črō.	a'-grō.	reg'-nō.

PLURAL.

N. dor	n'-ĭ-nī,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nă,
G. dor	n-i-nō'-	gen-e-rō'-rum,	a-grō'-rum,	reg-no'-rum,
D. dor	n'-ĭ-nīs,	gen'-ĕ-rīs,	a'-grīs,	reg'-nīs,
	n'-ĭ-nŏs,		a'-grōs,	reg'-nă,
V. dor	n'-ĭ-nī,		a'-grī,	reg'-nă,
Ab. dor	n'-ĭ-nīs.	gen'-ĕ-rīs.	a'-grīs.	reg'-nīs.

Like dominus decline

An'-ĭ-mus, the mind. Fŏ'-cus, a hearth. Nu'-me-rus, a number Gla'-di-us, a sword. O-ce'-ă-nus, the ocean. Clip'-e-us, a shield. Cor'-vus, a raven. Lū'-cus, a grove. Tro'-chus, a trundling-hoop.

Note. Nouns in us of the second declension are the only Latin nouns, whose nominative and vocative singular differ in form. See § 40, R. 3.

§ 47. A few nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gero and fëro; as, armiger, -ëri, an armor-bearer; Lucifer, -ëri, the morning star; and the following:-

A-dul'-ter, an adulterer. Lī'-ber, Bacchus. Pu'-er, a boy. Cel'-tī-bēr, a Celliberian. Lib'-ĕ-ri, (plur.), children. Sŏ'-cer, a father-in-law. I'-ber, a Spaniard. Pres'-by-ter, an elder. Ves'-per, the evening.

Mul'-ct-ber, Vulcan, sometimes has this form.

§ 48. 1. All other nouns in er reject the e in adding the terminations, (§ 322, 4), and are declined like ager; thus,

A'-per, a wild boar. LI'-ber, a book. Al-ex-an'-der. Ma-gis'-ter, a master. Aus'-ter, the south wind. Is'-ter. Fá'-ber, a workman. Teu'-cer. On'-a-ger, a wild ass.

2. Vir, a man, with its compounds, and the patrial Trēvir, (the only nouns in ir,) are declined like gener.

Like regnum decline

Ex-em'-plum, an example. An'-trum, a cave. Præ-sid'-i-um, a defence. Ne-go'-ti-um, * a business. A'-tri-um, a hall. Sax'-um, a rock. Scep'-trum, a sceptre. Bel'-lum, war. Ni'-trum, natron.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 49. 1. The following nouns in us and os are feminine:-

Abyssus, a bottomless pit. Dialectos, a dialect. Alvus, the belly. Antidotus, an antidote. Domus, a house, home. Arctos(us), the Northern Erēmus, a desert. Bear. Humus, the ground. Carbasus, a sail.

Miltos, vermilion. Diphthongus, a diphthong. Pharus(os), a light-house. Plinthus, the base of a column. Vannus, a corn-fan.

2. Greek nouns in odus (\(\gamma\) odos), and metros, are likewise feminine; as, synodus, an assembly; diametros, a diameter.

^{*} Pronounced ne-go'-she-um. See § 12.

Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, etc. are feminine. See § 29, 2.

Yet the following names of plants are masculine:-

Acanthus, bear's-foot. Amarantus, amaranth. Asparagus, asparagus. Calamus, a reed. Carduus, a thistle. Dūmus, a bramble.

Carbunculus, a carbuncle.

Ebŭlus, an elder. Helleborus, hellebore. Intubus, endire. Juneus, a bulrush. Raphanus, a radish. Rhamnos, buck-thorn.

Rŭbus, a blackberry-bush. Tribulus, a caltrops.

And sometimes Amarăcus, marjoram. Cytisus, snail-clover.

Oleaster and pinaster, names of trees, are also masculine.

The following names of gems are also masculine:-

Beryllus, a beryl. Chrysoprasus, chrysoprase.

So also. Pyropus, gold-bronze.

Chrysolithus, chrysolite, and smaragdus, an emerald, are doubtful. Names of females in um are feminine: § 29, 1; as, mea Glycerium, Ter. Names of trees and plants in um are generally neuter; as, apium, parsley;

Opălus, opal.

aconītum, wolf's bane. Canopus, Pontus, Hellespontus, Isthmus, and all plural names in i of countries

and towns are masculine. Abydus(os) is doubtful.

Names of countries and towns ending in um, or, if plural, in a, are neuter as, Ilium or Ilion; Ecbătăna, ōrum.

The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-

Balanus, a date. Grossus, an unripe fig. Pampinus, a vine-leaf. Barbitos, a lute.

Phasēlus, a light vessel.

Atomus, an atom, and colus, a distaff, are doubtful, but more frequently feminine.

Pelăgus. the sea, and virus, poison, are neuter. Vulgus, the common people, is neuter, and rarely masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 52. Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in ii, the poets frequently contract it into ī; as, ingenī, for ingenii.

Vocative singular. The vocative of nouns in us is sometimes like the nominative, especially in poetry; as, fluvius, Latīnus, in Virgil. So, audi tu, populus Albānus. Liv.

Proper names in ĭus omit e in the vocative; as, Horatius, Horāti; Virgilius, Virgili.

Filius, a son, and genius, a guardian angel, make also fili and geni. Other nouns in ius, including patrials and possessives derived from proper names, form their vocative regularly in e; as, Delius, Delie; Tirynthius, Tirynthie; Laertius, Laertie.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of some nouns of the second declension, especially of those which denote money, weight and measure, is commonly formed in um, instead of orum: § 322, 4.

Such are particularly nummum, sestertium, denarium, medimnum, jugerum, modium, talentum. The same form occurs in other words, especially in poetry; as, deum, liberum, Danaum; etc., and sometimes om is found instead of um; as, Achivom. Virg. Cf. § 322, 8.

Deus, a god, is thus declined:—

Singular.			Plural.
N. de'-us	١,	N.	di'-i, dī, or de'-i,
G. de'-i,		G.	de-ō'-rum,
D. de'-o,		D.	di'-is, dis, or de'-is,
Ac. de'-ur	n,	Ac.	de'-os,
V. de'-us	,	V.	di'-i, dī, or de'-i,
Ab. de'-o.		Ab.	di'-is, dis, or de'-is.

Jēsus, or Iēsus, the name of the Savior, has um in the accusative, and u in all the other oblique cases.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 54. 1. Os and on, in the second declension, are Greek terminations, and are commonly changed, in Latin, into us and um; but sometimes both forms are in use; as, Alphēos, and Alphēus; Ilion and Ilium. Greek names in ros after a consonant commonly change ros into er; as, Alexandros, Alexander; Teucros, Teucer. In a few words ros is changed to rus; as, Codrus, hydrus, and once in Virgil, Teucrus.

Greek nouns are thus declined in the singular number:-

Singular.			Barbiton, a lyre.
N.		Andrŏ'-ge-ōs,	N. bar'-bĭ-tŏn,
G.		An-dro'-ge-ō, or ī,	G. bar'-bĭ-tī,
D.	De'-lō,	An-dro'-ge-ō,	D. bar'-bĭ-tō,
Ac.	De'-lon or um,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ōn,	Ac. bar'-bĭ-tŏn,
V.	De'-lĕ,	An-dro'-ge-os,	V. bar-bi-ton.
Ab.	De'-lō.	An-dro'-ge-ō.	Ab. bar'-bi-tō.

2. The plurals of Greek nouns in os and on are declined like those of dominus and regnum; but the nominative plural of nouns in os sometimes ends in a; as, canephora.

3. In early writers some nouns in os have a genitive in ū (ou); as, Menandrū.

Ter.

4. A genitive plural in on, instead of orum, occurs in the titles of books and

in some names of places; as, Georgicon; Philenon are. Sall.
5. Greek proper names in eus (see § 9, R. 3), are declined like dominus, except So the vocative ends in eu; but sometimes in the genitive, dative, and accusative also, they retain the Greek form, viz. gen. $\tilde{e}\check{o}s$, dat. $\tilde{e}\check{i}$ (contracted $\overline{e}i$), acc. $\tilde{e}\check{a}$ or $\tilde{e}\check{a}$, and are of the third declension. See §§ 86, and 306, (1.) So in Lucretius the neuter pelágus (Greek $\pi i \lambda a \gamma cs$, e cs) has an accusative plural pelăgē for pelagea after the third declension. § 83, 1.—See also respecting a genitive in i of some proper nouns in es, § 73, Rem.—Panthā occurs in Virgil, A. 2, 822, as the vocative of Panthās. Cf. § 81.

THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 55. The number of final letters, in this declension, is twelve. Five are vowels—a, e, i, o, y; and seven are consonants-c, l, n, r, s, t, x. The number of its final syllables exceeds fifty.

REM. The following terminations belong exclusively to Greek nouns; viz. ma, i, y, an, in, on, yn, er, yr, ys, eus, yx, inx, ynx, and plurals in e.

Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Declension.

To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its bender, its nominative singular, and one of its oblique cases; since the root of the cases is not always found entire and unchanged in the nominative. The case usually selected for this purpose is the genitive singular. The formation of the accusative singular, and of the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, depends upon the gender: if it is masculine or feminine, these cases have one form; if neuter, another.

§ 56. The student should first fix well in his memory the terminations of one of these forms. He should next learn the nominative and genitive singular of the word which is to be declined. If is be removed from the genitive, the remainder will always be the root of the oblique cases, and by annexing their terminations to this root, the word is declined; thus, rupes, genitive (found in the dictionary) rupis, root rup, dative rupi, etc.: so ars, gen. aris, root art, dat. arti, etc.; opus, gen. opëris, root opër, dat. opëri, etc.

RULES FOR FORMING THE NOMINATIVE SINGULAR OF THE THIRD DECLENSION FROM THE ROOT.

I. Roots ending in c, g; b, m, p; u, t, d, and some in r, add s to form the nominative; as, trabis, trabs; hiems; hiems; gruis, grus.

REMARK 1. T, d and r before s are dropped; as, nepotis, nepos; laudis, laus; floris, flos. So bovis, bos, drops v.

REM. 2. C and g before s form x; as, voc is, vox; reg is, rex. So vs forms x in niv is, nix. Cf. §§ 3, 2, and 171, 1.

REM. 3. Short i in the root before c, b, p, t, is commonly changed to e; as, pollicis, pollex; calibis, calebs; principis, princeps; comitis, comes. So e is changed to e in aucupis, auceps.

REM. 4. Short \check{e} or \check{o} before r in neuters is changed to \check{u} ; as, genëris, gen \check{u} ; temp \check{o} ris, temp \check{u} s.

REM. 5. Short ĕ before r is changed to ĭ in the masculines cinëris, cinis; cucumëris, cucumis; pulvēris, pulvis; vomēris, vomis.

REM. 6. A few and those mostly monosyllabic roots of masculines and feminines, not increasing in the genitive, add es or is, instead of s alone; as, gen. rūpis, nom. rūpes; gen. auris, nom. auris.

REM. 7. A few neuters add ĕ to the root to form the nominative; as, rēšis, rētē; māris, mārē.

II. To roots ending in l and n, to some in r and s, and to those of most neuters in t, no addition is made in forming the nominative; as, animālis, animal; canŏnis, cănon; honōris, hŏnor; assis, as.

REMARK 1. Final on and in in the roots of masculines and feminines, become o in the nominative; as, sermonis, sermo; arundinis, arundo.

REM. 2. Final in in the roots of neuters becomes in in the nominative; as, fluminis, flumin. So also in the masculines, oscen, pecten, tibicen and tubicen.

REM. 3. Tr and br at the end of a root, take \check{e} between them in the nominative; as, patris, $p\check{a}ter$; imbris, imber. Cf. §§ 108, 48, and 106.

REM. 4. Short ở is changed to ử in ebởris, ěbửr; femởris, fễmửr; jecởris, jễcửr; and robởris, rồbửr.

REM. 5. In the roots of neuters at drops t, and it becomes ut in the nominative; as, poëmätis, poëma; capitis, caput.

REM. 6. Roots of this class ending in repeated consonants drop one of them in the nominative; as, fellis, fel; farris, far; assis, as; bessis, bes.

The following are the two forms of termination in this declension:-

Singuur	•		1 turui		
Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	Ma	sc. and Fem.	Neut.	
N. *	*	N.	ēs,	ă, (iă),	
G. is,	ĭs,	G.	ŭm, (iŭm),	ŭm, (iŭm),	,
D. i,	ĩ,		ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,	
Ac. ĕm, (ĭm),	*	Ac.	ēs,	ă, (iă),	
V. *	*		ēs,	ă, (iă),	
$Ab.\ \ \breve{e},\ (\bar{\imath}).$	ĕ, (ī).	Ab.	ĭbŭs.	ĭbŭs.	

The asterisk stands for the nominative, and for those cases which are like it.

§ 57. The following are examples of the most common forms of

3	THE IO	nowing are exam	iipies of the	IIIOSC CC	JIIIIIOII IOIII
nouns of this declension, declined through				heir cas	ses.
	Hŏnor, hono	r; masc.	Turr	is, a tou	ver; fem.
S	ingular.	Plural.	Singular	•	Plural.
N.	ho'-nor,	ho-nō'-res,	N. tur'-ri	s,	tur'-res,
G.	ho-nō'-ris,	ho-nō'-rum,	G. tur'-ri	s,	tur'-ri-um,
D.	ho-nō'-ri,	ho-nor'-i-bus,	D. tur'-ri	,	tur'-ri-bus,
Ac.	ho-nō'-rem,	ho-nō'-res,	Ac. tur'-ri	m, rem,	tur'-res,
V.	ho'-nor,	ho-nō'-res,	V. tur'-ri	s,	tur'-res,
Ab.	ho-nō'-re.	ho-nor'-ĭ-bus.	Ab. tur'-ri	, or re.	tur'-rĭ-bus.
Rūpes, a rock; fem.			No.	x, night	; fem.
S	ingular.	Plural.	Singular		Plural.
N.	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	N. nox,		noc'-tes,
	ru'-pis,	ru'-pi-um,	G. noc,-ti	is,	noc'-ti-um,*
D.	ru'-pi,	ru'-pĭ-bus,	D. noc-ti	i,	noc'-tĭ-bus,
Ac.	ru'-pem,	ru'-pes,	Ac. noc'-te	em,	noc'-tes,
V.	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	V. nox,		noc'-tes,
Ab.	ru'-pe.	ru'-pĭ-bus.	Ab. noc'-to	e.	noc'-tĭ-bus.

	Ars, art; iem.		
S	ingular.	Plural.	
N.	ars,	ar'-tes,	
$G_{i,j}$	ar'-tis,	ar'-ti-um,*	
D.	ar'-ti,	ar'-tĭ-bus,	
Ac.	ar'-tem,	ar'-tes,	
V.	ars,	ar'-tes,	
Ab.	ar'-te.	ar'-tĭ-bus.	

Sermo, speech: masc.

	Dering, epocon,			
.5	ingular.	Plural.		
N.	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,		
G.	ser-mō'-nis,	ser-mō'-num,		
D.	ser-mō'-ni,	ser-mon'-ĭ-bus,		
Ac.	ser-mō'-nem,	ser-mō'-nes,		
V.	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,		
Ab.	ser-mō'-ne.	ser-mon'-ĭ-bus.		

المستحدد الم	Nox,	night; iem.
S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	nox,	noc'-tes,
G.	noc,-tis,	noc'-ti-um,*
D.	noc'-ti,	noc'-tĭ-bus,
Ac.	noc'-tem,	noc'-tes,
V.	nox,	noc'-tes,
Ab.	noc'-te.	noc'-tĭ-bus.

Miles, a soldier; com. gen.

	,	,
S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
G.,	mil'-ĭ-tis,	mil'-ĭ-tum,
D.	mil'-ĭ-ti,	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	mil'-ĭ-tem,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
V.	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
Ab.	mil'-ĭ-te.	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus.

Pater a father masc.

I ator, a ja	mes.
Singular.	Plural.
N. pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,
G. pa'-tris,	pa'-trum,
D. pa'-tri,	pat'rĭ-bus,
Ac. pa'-trem,	pa'-tres,
V. pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,
Ab. pa'-tre.	pat'-rĭ-bus.

^{*} Pronounced ar'-she-um, noc'-she-um. See § 12.

Sĕdīle, a seat; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
G. se-dī'-lis,	se-dil'-i-um,
D. / se-dī'-li,	se-dil'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
V. se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
Ab. se-dī'-li.	se-dil'-ĭ-bus.

Carmen, a verse; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
G.	car'-mi-nis,	car'-mi-num,
D.	car'-mĭ-ni,	car-min'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
V.	car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
Ab.	car'-mĭ-ne.	car-min'-ĭ-bus.

Iter, a journey; neut.

S	lingular.	Plural.
N.	ĭ'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
G.	i-tin'-ĕ-ris,	i-tin'-ĕ-rum,
D.	i-tin'-ĕ-ri,	it-i-ner'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
V.	i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
Ab.	i-tin'-ĕ-re.	it-i-ner'-ĭ-bus.

Lăpis, a stone; masc.

Singular.	Plural.
N. la'-pis,	lap'-ĭ-des,
G. lap'-ĭ-dis,	lap'-ĭ-dum,
D. lap'-i-di,	la-pid'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. lap'-i-dem,	lap'-ĭ-des,
V. la'-pis,	lap'-ĭ-des,
Ab. lap'-ĭ-de.	la-pid'i-bus.

Virgo, a virgin; fem.

Singular.	Plural.
N. vir'-go,	vir'-gĭ-nes,
G. vir'-gi-nis,	vir'-gĭ-num,
Dvir'-gĭ-ni,	vir-gin'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. vir'-gi-nem,	vir'-gĭ-nes,
V. vir'-go,	vir'-gĭ-nes, vir-gin'-ĭ-bus.
Ab. vir'-gĭ-ne.	Alt-elit -1-pus.

Animal, an animal; neut.

,,		
	Plural.	
	an-i-ma'-li-a.	
	an-i-ma'-li-um,	
	an-i-mal'-ĭ-bus.	
	an-i-ma'-li-a,	
	an-i-ma'-li-a,	
an-i-mā'-li.	an-i-mal'-ĭ-bus.	
	ingular. ăn'-ĭ-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an-i-mā'-li, an'-ĭ-mal, an'-ĭ-mal, an-i-mā'-li.	

Opus, work; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ŏ'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
G.	op'-ĕ-ris,	op'ĕ-rum,
D.	op'-ĕ-ri,	o-per'-i-bus,
Ac.	o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
V.	o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
Ab.	op'-ĕ-re.	o-per'-ĭ-bus.

Căput, a head; neut.

	1 /	
S	ingular.	Plural.
	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
G.	cap'-i-tis,	cap'-i-tum,
D.	cap'-ĭ-ti,	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
V.	ca'-put,	cap´-ĭ-ta,
Ab.	can'-ĭ-te.	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus.

Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
G. po-em'-ă-tis,	po-em'-ă-tum,
D. po-em'-ă-ti,	po-e-mat'-ĭ-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis,
Ac. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
V. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
Ab. po-em'-ă-te.	po-e-mat'-ĭ-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis.

Rules for the Gender of Nouns of the Third Declension.

Nouns whose gender is determined by their signification, according to the general rules, § 28-34, are not included in the following rules and exceptions.

MASCULINES.

Nouns ending in o, er, or, es increasing in the genitive, os, and n, are masculine; as,

sermo, speech; dölor, pain; flos, a flower; carcer, a prison; pes, a foot; cănon, a rule.

Exceptions in O.

§ 59. 1. Abstract and collective nouns in io are feminine; as, ratio, reason; legio, a legion.

REM. 1. But numerals in io; as, binio, trinio, etc., except unio, unity, are masculine.

2. Nouns in do and go, of more than two syllables, are feminine; as, arundo, a reed; imago, an image. So also grando, hail. But comedo, a glutton; unedo, the arbute tree; and harpago, a grapplinghook, are masculine.

REM. 2. Margo, the prink of a river, is doubtful. Cupīdo, desire, is often masculine in poetry, but in prose is always feminine.

3. Cāro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine; as, ēcho, an echo. Būbo,

the owl, is once feminine, Virg. A. 4, 462.

Exceptions in ER.

§ 60. 1. Laver, a water plant, and tüber, the tuber tree, are feminine, but when the latter denotes the fruit, it is masculine. Linter, a boat, is feminine, and once, in Tibullus, masculine. Siser, skirret, is neuter in the singular, but masculine in the plural.

2. The following, in er, are neuter:-

Acer, a maple-tree. Cadaver, a dead body. Cicer, a vetch. Iter, a journey. Läser, assafætida.

Papāver, a poppy. Piper, pepper. Siler, an osier. Spinther, a clasp. Süber, a cork-tree. Tüber, a swelling. Uber, a teat. Ver, the spring. Verber, a scourge. Zingiber, ginger.

Exceptions in OR.

Arbor, a tree, is feminine: ador, spelt; aquor, the sea; marmor, marble; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

Exceptions in ES increasing in the genitive.

The following are feminine:—

Compes, a fetter. Merces, a reward. Merges, a sheaf of corn.

Quies, and Requies, rest. Těges, a mat. Inquies, restlessness. Sěges, growing corn.

2. Ales, a bird; comes, a companion; hospes, a guest; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier; obses, a hostage; præses, a president; and sutelles, a life-guard, are common, § 30. Æs, brass, is neuter.

Exceptions in OS.

3. Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; eos, the morning; and rarely $n\bar{s}pos$, a grandchild, are feminine: sacerdos, custos, and bos are common, \S 30: $\bar{s}s$, the mouth, and $\bar{o}s$, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greek words $\bar{s}pos$, epic poetry; and $m\bar{s}los$, melody.

Exceptions in N.

4. Nouns in men with four in n are neuter—glüten, glue; inguen, the groin; pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.

5. Four nouns in on are feminine—aēdon, a nightingale; halcyon, a king-fisher; ēcon, am image; and sindon, muslin.

FEMININES.

§ 62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, ys, aus, s preceded by a consonant, and x, are feminine; as,

atas, age; nūbes, a cloud; avis, a bird; chlamys, a cloak; laus, praise; trabs, a beam; pax, peace.

Exceptions in AS.

1. Mas, a male, vas, a surety, and as, a piece of money, or any unit divisible into twelve parts, are masculine. Greek nouns in as, antis, are also masculine; as, addmas, adamant. So also Mêlas, the name of a river, § 28, 2. Arcas and Nômas are common.—2. Vas, a vessel, the indeclinable nouns, fas and nēfas, and Greek nouns in as, ătis, are neuter; as, artocreas, a meat-pie; bucêras, a species of herb.

Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

3. Acinăces, a scimitar, and coles or colis, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, palumbes, vates, and vepres, are masculine or feminine. Cacoothes, hippománes, nepenthes, and panáces, Greek words, are neuter.

Exceptions in IS.

- § 63. 1. Latin nouns in nis are masculine or doubtful.
- (1.) Masc. Crīnis, hair; ignis, fire; pānis, bread; mānes, (plur.), departed spīrits.—(2.) Masc. or fem. Amnis, a river; cinis, ashes; finis, an end; clānis, the haunch; cānis, a dog; fūnis, a rope. The plurals, cinēres, the ashes of the dead, and fines, boundaries, are always masculine.
 - 2. The following are common or doubtful:-

Anguis, a snake.
Callis, a path.
Canālis, a conduit pipe.
Contubernālis, a comrade.

Corbis, a basket. Pollis, fine flour. Pulvis, dust. Scrobis, a ditch.

Tigris, a tiger. Torquis, a chain.

3. The following are masculine:-

Axis, an axle.
Aqualis, a water-pot.
Cassis, a net.
Caulis, or } a stalk.

Cenchris, a serpent.
Collis, a hill.
Cucumis, a cucumber.
Eusis, a sword.
Fascis, a bundle.

Follis, a pair of bellows. Fustis, a club. Glis, a dormouse. Lăpis, a stone. Lemurcs, pl., spectres.

Mensis, a month. Sanguis, blood. Sentis, a brier. Mugilis, a mullet. Sodālis, a companion. Sēmis, or Orbis, a circle. Semissis, Torris, a firebrand. Piscis, a fish. Bessis, compounds Unguis, a nail. Postis, a post. Centussis, Vectis, a lever. of as. Quiris, a Roman. Decussis, Vermis, a worm. Samnis, a Samnite. Vomis, a ploughshare. Tressis.

4. Names of male beings, rivers, and months in is are masculine; as, Dis, Pluto; Anūbis, an Egyptian deity; Tigris, the river Tigris; Aprīlis, April. See § 28.

Exceptions in YS.

Names of rivers and mountains in ys are masculine; as, Halys, Othrys. See § 28, 2 and 3.

Exceptions in S preceded by a consonant.

1. Dens, a tooth; fons, a fountain; mons, a mountain; and pons, a bridge, are masculine. So also are auceps, a bird-catcher; chalybs, steel; cliens, a client; ellops, a kind of fish; epops, a hoopoe; grups, a griffin; hydrops, the dropsy; mërops, a kind of bird. Rudens, a rope, is masculine and very

rarely feminine.

2. The following nouns also are masculine, viz. (a.) these which are properly adjectives—confluens and torrens, scil. amnis; occidens and oriens, scil. sol; (b.) compounds of dens—tridens, a trident, and bidens, a two-pronged mattock; but bidens, a sheep, is feminine; (c.) the parts of as ending in ns; as, sextans,

quadrans, triens, dodrans, and dextans.

3. The following are common or doubtful:—

Seps, a kind of serpent. Adeps, grease. Serpens, a serpent. Forceps, pincers. Scrobs, a ditch. Stirps, the trunk of a tree.

Animans an animal, which is properly an adjective, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Exceptions in X.

§ 65. 1. AX. Anthrax, cinnabar; corax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; dropax, an ointment; styrax, a kind of tree; thorax, a breast-plate; and

Atax, the river Aude, are masculine; limax, a snail, is common.

2. EX. Nouns in ex are masculine, except fux, forfex, lex, nex, prex, (obsolete in nom. and gen. sing.), and supellex, which are feminine; to which add (§ 29) carex, ilex, murex, pellex, and vitex. Atriplex is neuter and very rarely masculine or feminine. Alex, a fish-pickle; cortex, bark; imbrex, a gutter-tile; obex, a bolt; and silex, a flint, are doubtful: senex, an old person; grex, a herd; rumex, sorrel; and pumex, pumice-stone, are masculine and very rarely feminine.

3. IX. Călix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phænix, a kind of bird; and spādix, a palm-branch, are masculine: lărix, the larch-tree; perdix, a partridge; and

vārix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine.

 OX. Box and esox, names of fishes, are masculine.
 UX. Trādux, a vine-branch, is masculine.
 YX. Bombyx, a silk-worm; cālyx, the bud of a flower; coccyx, a cuckoo; oryx, a wild goat, and names of mountains in yx, as Eryx, are masculine. Onyx, a box made of the onyx-stone, and sardonyx, a precious stone; also, calx, the heel, and calx, lime; lynx, a lynx, and sandyx, a kind of color, are masculine or feminine.

Note. Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is doubtful.

Quincunx, septunx, decunx, deunx, parts of as, are masculine.

NEUTERS.

§ 66. Nouns ending in a, e, i, y, c, l, t, ar, ur, us, and men,are neuter; as,

diadēma, a crown; rēte, a net; hydroměli, mead; lac, milk; vectīgal, revenue; căput, the head; calcar, a spur; guttur, the throat; pectus, the breast; and flumen, a river.

Exceptions in L, C, and E.

Mügil, a mullet, and sol, the sun, are masculine. Sal, salt, is masculine or neuter, in the singular; but, in the plural, it is always masculine. Lac is neuter and rarely masculine. Præneste is neuter, and once in Virgil feminine.

Exceptions in AR and UR.

Furfur, bran; sălar, a trout; turtur, a turtle dove; and vultur, a vulture, are masculine.

Exceptions in US.

- Lěpus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus (ποῦς), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but lagōpus, a kind of bird, is feminine.
- 2. Nouns in us, having $\bar{u}tis$, or $\bar{u}dis$, in the genitive, are feminine; as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.
- 3. Pecus, -udis, a brute animal, and tellus, the earth, are feminine. Pessinus, and Selīnus, names of towns, are also feminine. See § 29.
 - Grus, a crane; mus, a mouse; and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
 Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.

RULES FOR THE OBLIQUE CASES OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 68. 1. The genitive singular of the third declension of Latin nouns always ends in is, in Greek nouns it sometimes ends in os and us.

2. Nouns in a form their genitive in ătis; as, di-a-dē'-ma, di-adem'-ă-tis, a crown; dog'-ma, dog'-mă-tis, an opinion.

E.

3. Nouns in e change e into is; as, re'-te, re'-tis, a net; se-di'-le, se-dī'-lis, a seat.

T.

4. Nouns in i are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; but hydrom'-ĕ-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel'-t-lis in the genitive.

Nouns in o form their genitive in onis; as, ser'-mo, sermō'-nis, speech; pā'-vo, pa-vō'-nis, a peacock.

REMARK. Patrials in o have onis; as, Macedo, onis; but some have onis; as, Eburones, etc. See 3d exception to increments in O, § 287.

Exc. 1. Nouns in do and go form their genitive in inis; as, a-run'-do, a-run'-di-nis, a reed; i-mā-go, i-mag'-i-nis, an image.

But four dissyllables—cūdo, ūdo, ligo and mango; and three trisyllables—comēdo, unēdo, and harpāgo, have onis.

Exc. 2. The following nouns, also, have inis:—Apollo; homo, a man; nemo, nobody: and turbo, a whirlwind.

nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind. Ciro, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Anienis; Nerio, the wife of Mars, Nerienis; from the old nominatives, Anien, and Nerienes.

Exc. 3. Some Greek nouns in o form their genitive in ūs, and their other cases singular, in o; as, Dīdo, gen. Didus, dat. Dīdo, etc.; Argo, -us; but they are sometimes declined regularly; as, Dīdo, Dīdōnis.

Y

Greek nouns in y have their genitive in yos; as, misy, misyos, or, by contraction, misys.

C.

§ 70. The only nouns in c are ā'-lec, a-le'-cis, fish-brine, and lac, lac'-tis, milk.

L. N. R.

Nouns in l, n, and r, form their genitive by adding is; as, con'-sul, con'-s\u00fc-lis, a consul; c\u00e4'-non, can'-\u00f6-nis, a rule; $h\u00fo'-nor$, $ho-n\u00fo'-ris$, honor.

So, An'-I-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an animal, VI'-gil, vig'-I-lis, a watchman. Tr'-tan, Ti-tā'-nis, Titan. Sī'-ren, Si-rē'-nis, a Siren. Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin.

Cal'-car, cal-ca'-ris, a spur. Car'-cer, car'-ce-ris, a prison. A'-mor, a-mo'-ris, love. Gut'-tur, gut'-tū-ris, the throat. Mar'-tyr, mar'-ty-ris, a martyr.

Exceptions in L.

Fel, gall, and mel, honey, double l before is, making fellis and mellis.

Exceptions in N.

§ 71. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in ĭnis; as, ftū'-men, flu'-mĭ-nis, a river; glū'-ten, glu'-tǐ-nis, glue.

The following masculines, also, form their genitive in inis:—oscen, a bird which fore-boded by its notes; pecten, a comb; tibicen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.

2. Some Greek nouns in on form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomedon, Laomedontis. Some in in and in add is or os; as, Trāchin, or Trāchyn, Trachinis or Trachinos.

Exceptions in R.

1. Nouns in ter drop e in the genitive; as, pă-ter, pa-tris, a father. So also imber, a shower, and names of months in ber; as, October, Octobris.

4

But crāter, a cup; sōter, a savior; and lăter, a brick, retain e in the genitive.

2. Far, a kind of corn, has farris; hépar, the liver, hepătis; Lar or Lars, Lartis; iter, a journey, has itinéris from the old nominative itiner; Jupiter, Jóvis; and cor, the heart, cordis.

3. These four in ur have ŏris in the genitive:—ĕbur, ivory; fĕmur, the thigh; jĕcur, the liver; rōbur, strength.

Fémur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, and jocinoris.

AS.

§ 72. Nouns in as form their genitive in ātis; as, a'-tas, a-tā'-tis, age; pi'-ĕ-tas, pi-e-tā'-tis, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mās, a male, măris; vas, a surety, vădis; and vās, a vessel, vāsis. Anas, a duck, has anātis.

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in as form their genitive according to their gender; the masculines in antis, the feminines in ādis or ādos, and the neuters in ātis; as, adāmas, -antis, adamant; lampas, -ādis, a lamp; Pallas, -ādis or -ādos; bucē-ras, -ātis, a species of herb. Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in ādis. Mēlas, the name of a river, has Melānis.

ES.

§ 73. 1. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into is, itis, etis, or etis; as, rū-pes, ru'-pis, a rock; mī'-les, mil'-i-tis, a soldier; se'-ges, seg'-e-tis, growing corn; qui'-es, qui-e'-tis, rest.

REMARK. A few Greek proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes form their genitive in ei, or, by contraction, i, after the second declension; as, Achilles, is, ei or -i: and a few in α after the first declension; as, Orestes, is or α .

2. Those which make itis are,

Ales, a bird.
Ames, a fowler's staff.
Antistes, a priest.
Cæspes, a turf.
Cŏmes, a companion.
Eques, a horseman.
Fŏmes, touchwood.

Gurges, a whirlpool.
Hospes, a guest.
Līmes, a limit.
Merges, a sheaf of corn.
Miles, a soldier.
Palmes, a vine-branch.
Pèdes, a foot-soldier.

Poples, the ham.
Satelles, a lifeguard.
Stipes, the stock of a tree.
Termes, an olive bough.
Trāmes, a by-path.
Vēles, a skirmisher.

- 3. The following have ětis:—abies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indiges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; sěges, a corn-field; and tèges, a mat.
- 4. The following have $\tilde{\epsilon}tis:-C\tilde{\epsilon}bes$; Cres, a Cretan; $\tilde{\ell}bes$, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; inquies, restlessness; and tipes (used only in acc. and abl.), tapestry.—Some Greek proper names have either $\tilde{\epsilon}tis$ or is in the genitive; as, Chrèmes, $-\tilde{\epsilon}tis$, or -is. Dares, $-\tilde{\epsilon}tis$, or -is.
- Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and præses, a president, have idis. Hères, an heir, and merces, a reward, have $\bar{e}dis$; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have $\bar{e}dis$.

Exc. 2. Ceres has Cereris; bes, bessis; præs, prædis; and æs, æris.

TS

§ 74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, au'-ris, the ear; ă'-vis, ă'-vis, a bird.

Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in ĕris:—cĭnis, ashes; pulvis, dust; võmis or võmer, a ploughshare. Cucumis, a cucumber, has ĕris and rarely is.

Exc. 2. The following have idis:—capis, a cup; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, a point; lápis, a stone; and promulsis, an antepast.

Exc. 3. Two have this: -pollis, fine flour, and sanguis or sanguen, blood.

Exc. 4. Four have itis:—Dis, Pluto; lis, strife; Quiris, a Roman; and Samnis, a Samnite.

Exc. 5. Glis, a dormouse, has glīris.

GREEK NOUNS.

1. Greek nouns in is, whose genitive ends in iss or ess, (ics or ωc), form their genitive in Latin in is; as (a.) verbals in sis; as, basis, mathesis, etc. (b.) compounds of polis ($\pi^{i}\lambda_{k}$); as, metropolis, Neapòlis, etc.; and (c.) a few other proper names, as Charybdis, Lachesis, Syrtis, etc. In some nouns of this class the Greek genitive is sometimes found; as, Neměsis, Nemesios.

2. Greek nouns in is, whose Greek genitive is in idos (thos), form their Latin genitive in idis; as, ægis, aspis, ephemēris, pyrāmis, tyrannis, Ænēis, Iris, Nerēis, etc. Tigris has both is and idis; and in some other words of this class later writers use is instead

of idis.

3. Charis has Charitis; Salamis, Salaminis, and Simois, Simoentis.

OS.

§ 75. Nouns in ōs form their genitive in ōris or ōtis; as, flos, flō'-ris, a flower; nĕ-pos, ne-pō'-tis, a grandchild.

The following have oris:-

Flos, a flower. Glos, a husband's sister. Hŏnos or hŏnor, honor. Lăbos or lăbor, labor. Lěpos or lěpor, wit. Mos, a custom. Os, the mouth. Ros, dew.

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has oris.

The following have ōtis:-

Cos, a whetstone.
Dos, a dowry.

Monoceros, a unicorn. Rhinoceros, a rhinoceros. Něpos, a grandchild. Sacerdos, a priest.

Exc. 1. Custos, a keeper, has custõdis; bos, an ox, bövis; and ös, a bone, ossis. Exc. 2. Some Greek nouns in os have õis in the genitive; as, hēros, a hero; Mīnos; Tros, a Trojan; and some Greek neuters in os are used in the third declension in the nominative and accusative only; as, Argos, cētos, ĕpos, mēlos.

US.

- § 76. 1. Nouns in ŭs form their genitive in ĕris or ŏris; as, gĕ-nus, gen'-ĕ-ris, a kind; tem'-pus, tem'-pŏ-ris, time.
- 2. Those which make ĕris are, čcus, (chaff), fædus, fūnus, gĕnus, glŏmus, lǎtus, mūnus, ŏlus, ŏnus, ŏpus, pondus, rūdus, scēlus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, viscus and vulnus. In early writers pignus has sometimes pignēris.
- 3. Those which make ŏris are, corpus, dēcus, dedēcus, facīnus, fēnus, frīgus, lēpus, lītus, nēmus, pectus, pēcus, pēnus, pignus, stercus, tempus, and tergus.

Exc. 1. These three in ūs have ūdis:—incūs, an anvil; pălūs, a morass; and subscūs, a dove-tail. Pēcūs, a brute animal, has pecūdis.

Exc. 2. These five have ūtis:—juventūs, youth; sălūs, safety; senectūs, old uge; servitūs, slavery; virtūs, virtue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in ūs have ūris; as, crus, the leg; jus, right; jus, broth; mus, a mouse; pus, matter; rus, the country; tus, frankincense; except grus, and sus, which have gruis, and suis; and rhus, which has rhois or roris. Tellus, the earth, has tellūris; and Līgus or Liyur, a Līgurian, has Līgūris.

Exc. 4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.

Exc. 5. Greek nouns in $p\bar{u}s$ ($\pi c \partial s$) have δdis ; as, tripus, trip δdis , a tripod; E dipus, $-\delta dis$; but this is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have untis; as, Amathus, Amathuntis. So Trapezus, Opus, Pessinus, and Selinus.

Exc. 7. Greek nouns ending in eus are all proper names, and have their genitive in eos; as, Orpheus, -eos. But these nouns are found also in the second declension; as, Orpheus, -èi or-i. Cf. § 64, 5.

YS.

§ 77. 1. Nouns in ys are Greek, and make their genitive in y is (contracted ys), or, as in Greek, yos (vos); as,

Cotys, gen. Cotyis or Cotys; Tethys, -yis or yos. So Atys, Capys, Erinnys, Hulys, Othrys. A few have ydis; as, chlamys, chlamydis.

S preceded by a consonant.

- 2. Nouns in s, with a consonant before it, form their genitive by changing s into is or tis; as, trabs, tră-bis, a beam; hi-ems, hi-e-mis, winter; pars, par'-tis, a part; frons, fron'-tis, the forehead.
- (1.) Those in bs, ms, and ps; as, scrobs, hiems, stirps, change s into is; except gryps, a griffin, which has gryphis.

REMARK. Compounds in ceps from căpio have tpis; as, princeps, principis, a prince. But auceps has aucūpis.

(2.) Those in ls, ns, and rs, as, puls, gens, ars, change s into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in ns change s into dis:—frons, foliage: glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and libripens, a weigher.

Exc. 2. Tiryns, a town of Argolis, has Tirynthis in the genitive.

T.

§ 78. 1. Nouns in t form their genitive in itis. They are, caput, the head, gen. cap'-i-tis; and its compounds, occiput and sinciput.

X.

- 2. Nouns in x form their genitive by resolving x into cs or gs, and inserting i before s; as, $vox(vocs)v\tilde{o}'-cis$, the voice; $lex(legs)l\bar{e}'-gis$, a law.
- (1.) Latin nouns in ax have $\bar{a}cis$; as, fornax, fornacis, except fax, $f\bar{a}cis$. Most Greek nouns in ax have $\bar{a}cis$; as, $th\bar{o}rax$, thoracis; a few have $\bar{a}cis$; as, $cor\bar{a}cis$; and Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyanax, Astyanactis.
- (2.) Nonns in ex have icis; as, jūdex, judicis: obex has obicis or objicis; and vibex, vibicis. Nex, prex, (nom. obs.), resex and fentsex have ecis; ālex, narhex, and vervex have ecis, and fiex, fucis. Lex and rex have egis; aquilex and grex have egis; remes has remigis; senex, senis; and supellex, supellectis.

- (3.) Nouns in ix have īcis; as, cervix, cervicis; and less frequently icis; as, călix, calicis. But nix has nivis; strix, foreign names of men, and gentile nouns in rix have igis; as, Biturix, Dumnorix, etc.
- (4.) Nouns in ox have ōcis; as, vox, vōcis; but Cappadox has Cappadocis; Allobrox, Allobrogis; and nox, noctis.
- (5.) Of nouns in ux, crux, dux, trādux, and nux have ŭcis; lux and Pollux, ūcis.— Conjux has conjugis, frux (nom. obs.) frūgis, and faux, faucis.
- (6.) Yx, a Greek termination, has ycis, $\bar{y}cis$, or ygis, $\bar{y}gis$. Onyx and sardönyx, in which x is equivalent to chs (§ 3, 2) have ychis; as, δnyx , onychis.

DATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 79. The dative singular ends in i; as, sermo, dat. sermoni.

Anciently it also ended in e; as, morte dătus. Varro in Gellius. So ære for æri, Cic. and Liv.; and jure for juri. Liv.

ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

- (a.) The accusative singular of all neuter nouns is like the nominative.
- (b.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, ends in em. Yet some Latin nouns in is, which do not increase in the genitive, have im, and some Greek nouns have im, in, or a.
- 1. Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in im; as, Hispālis, Tiberis, Anūbis; so also Albis, Athèsis, Bætis, Arar or Araris, Bilbilis, Apis, Osīris, Syrtis, etc. These sometimes, also, mako the accusative in in; as, Albin. Scaldis has in and em, and Līris, im, in, and em. Liger has Ligerim.
 - 2. The following also have the accusative in im:—

Amussis, a mason's rule. Būris, a plough-tail. Cannabis, hemp.

Mephītis, foul air. Pelvis, a basin. Rāvis, hoarseness. Cucumis, (gen. -is), a cucumber. Securis, an axe.

Sināpis, mustard. Sitis, thirst. Tussis, a cough. Vis. strength.

3. These have im, and sometimes em:-

Febris, a fever. Puppis, the stern. Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.

But these have em, and rarely im:-

Bipennis, a battle-axe. Clāvis, a key. Messis, a harvest.

Nāvis, a ship. Præsēpis, a stall.

Sementis, a sowing. Strigilis, a flesh-brush.

- 4. Lens and pars have rarely lentim and partim; and crātim from crates, is found in Plautus.
 - 5. Early writers formed the accusative of some other nouns in im.

Accusative of Greek Nouns.

- § **SO.** The accusative singular of masculine and feminine Greek nouns sometimes retains the Greek terminations in and a, but often ends, as in Latin, in em or im.
- I. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or os, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or a; as, lampas, lampadis (Greek -Soc), lampada; chlamys, chlamydis, chlamydem, or -yda; Helicon, Heliconis, Helicona.

REMARK. In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitive— Trös, Tröis, Tröem, and Tröa, a Trojan; hēros, a hero; and Minos, a king of Crete.—Aër, the air; æther, the sky; delphin, a dolphin; and pæan, a hymn, have usually a; as, aëra, æthera, delphina, pæana. Pan, a god, has only a.

Exc. 1. Masculines in is, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in im or in; sometimes in idem; Păris, Paridis; Parim, or Paridem.

Exc. 2. Feminines in is, increasing impurely in the genitive, though they usually follow the rule, have sometimes in or in; as, Elis, Elidis; Elin or Elidem. So tigris, gen. is or idis; acc. tigrim or tigrin.

II. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns in is not increasing, and in ys, gen. yos, form their accusative by changing the s of the nominative into m or n; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. sac), acc. Charybdim or -in; Hálys, -yis or -yos, Halym or -yn. So rhus, gen. rhois, has rhun or rhum.

III. Proper names ending in the diphthong eus, gen. ĕi and ĕos, have the accusative in ea; as, Thēseus, Thesea; Tydeus, Tydea. See § 54, 5.

IV. Some Greek proper names in es, whose genitive is in is, have in Latin, along with the accusative in em, the termination en, as if of the first declension; as, Achilles, Achilles, Xerxes, Xerxen; Sophöcles, Sophöclen. Cf. § 45, 1. Some also, which have either ēlis or is in the genitive, have, besides ēlem, ēla, or em, the termination en; as, Chrčmes, Thäles.

VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

§ S1. The vocative is like the nominative.

REMARK. Many Greek nouns, however, particularly proper names, drop s of the nominative to form the vocative; as, Daphnis, Daphni; Tethys, Tethy; Melampus, Melampu; Orpheus, Orpheu. Proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes have a vocative in e, after the first deciension; as, Socrates, Socrate. § 45, 1.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

- § 82. The ablative singular commonly ends in e.
- Exc. 1. (a.) Neuters in e, al, and ar, have the ablative in i; as, sedīle, sedīli; anīmal, anīmāli; calcar, calcāri.
- (b.) But names of towns in e, and the following neuters in ar, have e in the ablative; viz. baccar, an herb; far, corn; $k\bar{e}par$, the liver; $j\bar{u}bar$, a sunbeam; nectar, nectar; par, a pair; sal, salt. $R\bar{e}te$, a net, has either e or i; and $m\bar{a}re$, the sea, has sometimes in poetry mare in the ablative.
- Exc. 2. (a.) Nouns which have im alone, or both im and in in the accusative, and names of months in er or is, have i in the ablative; as, vis, vim, vi; Tiběris, -im, i; December, Decembri; Aprīlis, Aprīlis.
- (b.) But Bælis, cannābis, and sināpis, have e or i. Tigris, the tiger, has tigrīde; as a river it has both Tigrīde and Tigri.
- Exc. 3. (a.) Nouns which have em or im in the accusative, have their ablative in e or i; as, turris, turre or turri.
- (b.) So Elis, acc. Elidem and Elin, has Elide or Eli. But restis, and most Greek nouns with idis in the genitive, have e only; as, Păris, -idis, -ide.
- Exc. 4. (a.) Adjectives in is, used as nouns, have commonly i in the ablative, but sometimes e; as, familiaris, a friend; natālis, a birthday; sodālis, a companion; trirēmis, a trireme.—Participles in ns, used as nouns, have commonly e in the ablative, but continens has i.

(b.) When adjectives in is become proper names, they always have e; as, Juvenālis, Juvenāle. Affinis and αdīlis have generally e; as have always juvēnis, a youth; rūdis, a rod; and volūcris, a bird.

Exc. 5. (a.) The following, though they have only em in the accusative, have e or i in the ablative, but most of them have oftener e than i:—

Amnis,	Collis,	Ignis,	Pars,	Supellex,
Anguis,	Convallis,	Imber,	Postis,	Tridens,
Avis,	Corbis,	Mugĭlis, -	Pŭgil,	Unguis,
Bīlis,	Fīnis,	Orbis,	Sordes,	Vectis,
Cîvis,	Fustis,	Ovis,	Sors,	Vesper.
Classis.		′	· · · · · ·	•

- (b.) Occiput has only i, and rus has either e or i; but rure commonly signifies from the country, and ruri, in the country. Mel has rarely i.
- (c.) So also names of towns, when denoting the place where any thing is said to be, or to be done, have the ablative in i; as, Carthagni, at Carthage; so, Anxivi and Lacedemini, and, in the most ancient writers, many other nouns occur with this termination in the ablative. Canalis has i, and very rarely e.

Exc. 6. Nouns in ys, which have ym or ym in the accusative, have their ablative in ye or y; as, Atys, Atye, or Aty.

NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

- § 83. I. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es; as, sermones, rūpes:—but neuters have a, and those whose ablative singular ends in i only, or in e and i, have ia; as, cūput, capīta; sedīle, sedīlia; rēte, retia. Aplustre has both a and ia.
- 1. Some Greek neuters in os have \tilde{e} in the nominative plural; as, $m\tilde{e}los$; nom. plural, mele; (in Greek $\mu_{\tilde{e}h\tilde{e}L}$, by contraction $\mu_{\tilde{e}h\tilde{h}}$). So Tempe.

GENITIVE PLURAL.

- II. The genitive plural commonly ends in um; sometimes in ium.
- 1. Nouns which, in the ablative singular, have i only, or both e and i, make the genitive plural in ium; as, sedīle, sedīli, sedīlium; turris, turre or turri, turrium.
- 2. Nouns in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nūbes, nubium; hostis, hostium.

Exc. Cănis, juvenis, făris, mugilis, proles, strues, and vātes, have um; so oftener have ăpis, strigilis, and volucris; less frequently mensis, sedes, and, in the poets only, ambāges, cædes, clādes, vepres, and cælestis.

3. Monosyllables ending in two consonants have ium in the genitive plural; as, urbs, urbium; gens, gentium; arx, arcium.

Exc. Lynx, sphinx, and ops (nom. obsolete) have um.

Most monosyllables in s and x pure have um, but the following have ium; dos, mas, glis, lis, os (ossis), faux, (nom. obs.) nix, nox, strix, vis, generally fraus and mus; so also fur and ren, and sometimes lar.

4. Nouns of two or more syllables, in ns or rs, and names of nations in as, have commonly ium, but sometimes um; as, cliens, clientium or clientum; $Arp\bar{\imath}nas$, Arpinatium.

- (1.) Other nouns in as generally have um, but sometimes ium; as, atas, atātum or atatium. Penātes and optimātes have usually ium.
- 5. The following have ium:—caro, compes, linter, imber, üter, venter, Samnis, Quiris, and usually Insüber. Fornax and palus have sometimes ium.
- 6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, gigas, gigantum; Arabs, Arăbum; Thraz, Thrācum;—but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes õn; as, Epigramma, epigrammātön; Metamorphösis, -eön. The patrial Maleōn also is found in Curtius, 4, 13.

REMARK 1. Bos has boum in the genitive plural.

REM. 2. Nouns which want the singular, form the genitive plural as if they were complete; as, mānes, manium; cæltes, cæltum; ilia, ilium; as if from mānis, cæles, and île. So also names of feasts in alia; as, Saturnalia, Saturnalium; but these have sometimes örum after the second declension. Ales has sometimes, by epenthesis, alituum. See § 322, 3.

DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

- § 84. The dative and ablative plural end in ibus.
- Exc. 1. Bos has bobus and bubus, by contraction, for bovibus; sus has subus by syncope, for suibus. § 322, 5, and 4.
- Exc. 2. Greek nouns in ma have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in ibus; as, poēma, poematis, or poematibus.
- Exc. 3. The poets sometimes form the dative plural of Greek nouns, that increase in the genitive, in si, and, before a vowel, in sin; as, herois, heroidis; heroisi, or heroisin. Ovid. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosesi.

ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

- § 85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in $\bar{e}s$, \check{a} , $i\check{a}$.
- Exc. 1. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in $\bar{\imath}s$ or $\bar{\epsilon}\bar{\imath}s$, instead of $\bar{\epsilon}s$; as, partes, gen. partium, acc. partes or partes.
- Exc. 2. Greek masculines and feminines, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in as; as, lumpas, lumpadis, lumpadas. So also hēros, herōis, herōrs, and some barbarian names of nations have a similar form; as, Brigantas, Allobrōgas.

Jupiter, and vis, strength, are thus declined :-

, .	Singular.	Singular.	Plural.
4.11	N. Ju'-pĭ-ter,	N. vis,	vī'-res,
11	G. Jŏ'-vis,	G. vis,	vir'-i-um,
11	D. Jŏ'-vi,	D. —	vir'-ĭ-bus,
	Ac. Jŏ'-vem,	Ac. vim,	vī'-res,
1	V. Ju'-pĭ-ter,	V. vis,	vī'-res,
	Ab. Jŏ'-ve.	Ab. vi.	vir'-ĭ-bus.

§ 86. The following table exhibits the principal forms of Greek nouns of the third declension:—

	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Voc.	Abl.
S.	Lampas,	{ -ădis, } -ădos, }	-ădi,	{ -ădem, } -ăda, }	-as,	-ăde.
Pl.	-ădes,	-ădum,	-adĭbus,	}-ădes, } }-ădas, }	-ădes,	-adĭbus.
S.	Hēros,	-ōis,	-ōi,	}-ōem, }	-os,	-ōe.
Pl.	-ōes,		-oĭbus,	{ -ōes, } -ōas, }	-ões,	-oĭbus.
	Chĕlys,	(yos,)	-ği,	{-ym, -yn, }	-y ,	-ÿe <i>or</i> y.
	Poēsis,	{ -is, -ĭos, } -ĕos, }	-i,	{ -im,	-i,	-i.
	Achilles,	{ -is, -ei, -i, } -ĕos, }	-i,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} -\mathrm{em,} \\ -\mathrm{\breve{e}a,\bar{e}n,} \end{array} \right\}$	-es, -ē,	-e <i>or</i> -i.
	Orpheus, Aër,	-ĕos, -ĕris,	-ĕi, -ĕri,	-ĕa, -ĕra,	-er,	See § 54. -ĕre.
İ	Dīdō,	-ūs,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

§ 87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us and u. Those in us are masculine; those in u are neuter, and, except in the genitive, are indeclinable in the singular.

Nouns of this declension are thus declined :-

Fructus, fruit.			Cornu, a horn.		
Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.	
N. fruc'-tus,	frue'-tūs,	N.	cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,	
G. fruc'-tūs,	fruc'-tu-ŭm,	G.	cor'-nūs,	cor'-nu-ŭm,	
D. frue'-tu-i,	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs,	D.	cor'-nū,	cor'-ni-bus,	
Ac. fruc'-tum,	fruc'-tūs,	Ac	. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,	
V. fruc'-tus,	frue'-tūs,	V.	cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,	
Ab. fruc'-tū.	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs.	Ab	. cor'-nū.	cor'-nĭ-bŭs.	

In like manner decline

Ca	n'-tus, a song.	Fluc'-tus, a wave.	Se-nā'-tus, the senate.
		Luc'-tus, grief.	Ge'-lu, ice. (in sing.)
Ex	-er-ci-tus, an army.	Mo'-tus, motion.	Ve'-ru, a spit.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 88. 1. The following are feminine:-

Acus, a needle. Fīcus, a fig. Portīcus, a gallery. Dŏmus, a house. Mānus, a hand. Trībus, a tribe.

Còlus, a distaff, and the plurals Quinquātrus, a feast of Minerva, and Idus, the Ides, are also feminine. So noctu, by night, found only in the ablative singular Pénus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or

Pèrus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Sécus, sex, is neuter; see § 94. Spècus, a den, is masculine and rarely feminine or neuter.

2. Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification; as,

Anus, nŭrus, socrus;—cornus, laurus, and quercus. Myrtus also is feminine and rarely masculine. See § 29, 1 and 2.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 89. Dŏmus, a house, is partly of the fourth declension, and partly of the second. It is thus declined:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. do'-mŭs, G. do'-mūs, or do'-mī,	do'-mūs, dom'-u-ŭm, <i>or</i> do-mō'-rŭm
D. dom'-u-i, or do'-mō, Ac. do'-mum, V. do'-mus.	dom'-i-bŭs, do'-mūs, or do'-mōs, do'-mūs,
Ab. do'-mō.	dom'-i-bŭs.

- (a.) Domūs, in the genitive, signifies, of a house; domī commonly signifies, at home. The ablative domu is found in Plautus, and in ancient inscriptions. In the genitive and accusative plural the forms of the second declension are more used than those of the fourth.
- (b.) Cornus, a cornel-tree; ficus, a fig. or a fig-tree; laurus, a laurel; and myrtus, a myrtle, are sometimes of the second declension. Penus is of the second, third or fourth declension.
- (c.) Some nouns in u have also forms in us and um; as, cornu, cornus, or cornum. Adjectives, compounds of manus, are of the first and second declensions.

REMARK 1. Nouns of this declension anciently belonged to the third, and were formed by contraction, thus:--

Singular.	Plural.
N. fructŭs,	frutuēs, ūs,
G. fructuis, -ūs,	fructuŭin, -ŭm,
D. fructui, -ū,	fructuibus, -ubus, or -ibus,
Ac. fructuem, -um,	fructuēs, ūs,
V. fructŭs,	fructnēs, -ūs,
Ab. fructuĕ, -ū.	fructuibus ubus. or -ibus.

- 2. The genitive singular in is is sometimes found in ancient authors; as, anuis, Ter. A genitive in i, after the second declension, also occurs; as, senātus, senāti; tumultus, tumulti. Sall.
- 3. The contracted form of the dative in u is not often used; yet it sometimes occurs, especially in Cæsar, and in the poets.
 - 4. The contracted form of the genitive plural in um rarely occurs.
- 5. The following nouns have ŭbus in the dative and ablative plural:—

Acus, a needle. Artus, a joint. Partus, a birth. Spěcus, a den. Arcus, a bow. Lácus, a lake. Pěcu, a flock. Tribus, a tribe.

Gěnu, a knee; portus, a harbor; tonitrus, thunder; and věru, a spit, have thus or übus.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

§ 90. Nouns of the fifth declension end in $\bar{e}s$, and are of the feminine gender.

They are thus declined: -

Res, a thing.		1	Dies, a day.		
	Singular.	Plural.		gular.	Plural.
	N. res,	rēs,	N. di		di'-ēs,
	G. rĕ'-ī,	rē'-rŭm,	G. di		di-ē'-rŭm,
	D. rĕ'-ī,	rē'-bŭs,	D. di		di-ē'-bŭs,
4	Ac. rem,	rēs,	Ac. di	,	di'-ēs,
	V. rēs,	rēs,	V. di		di'-ēs,
	Ab. rē.	rē'-bŭs.	Ab. di'	-ē.	di-ē'-bŭs.

REMARK. Nouns of this declension, like those of the fourth, seem to have belonged originally to the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

1. Dies, a day, is masculine or feminine in the singular, and always masculine in the plural; meridies, mid-day, is masculine only.

NOTE. Dies is seldom feminine, in good prose writers, except when it denotes duration of time, or a day fixed and determined.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

2. The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in \bar{e} or in \bar{i} , instead of ei; as, gen. $di\bar{e}$ for $di\bar{e}i$, Virg.; fide for fidei, Hor.; acie for aciei, Cæs.—gen. $pl\bar{e}bi$ for $pleb\bar{e}i$, Liv.—dat. fide for fidei, Hor., pernicie, Liv., and pernicii, Nep., for pernicie. The genitive rabies contracted for rabies, after the third declension, is found in Lucretius.

REMARK 1. There are only about eighty nouns of this declension, and of these only two, res and dies, are complete in the plural. Acies, effigies, eluvies, facies, glucies, progenies, series, species, spes, want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural, and the rest want the plural altogether.

REM. 2. All nouns of this declension end in ies, except four—fides, faith; res, a thing; spes, hope; and plobes, the common people;—and all nouns in ies are of this declension, except abies, aries, paries, quies, and requies, which are of the third declension.

DECLENSION OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

§ **91.** When a compound noun consists of two nominatives, both parts are declined; but when one part is a nominative, and the other an oblique case, the nominative only is declined. Of the former kind are respublica, a commonwealth, and jusjurandum, an oath; of the latter, mater-familias, a mistress of a family. Cf. § 43, 2.

	Singular.	Plural.
	res-pŭb'-lĭ-ca,	N. V. res-pub'-lĭ-cæ,
	re-i-pub'-li-cæ,	G. re-rum-pub-li-cā'-rum,
	rem-pub'-li-cam,	D. Ab. re-bus-pub'-lĭ-cis,
Ab.	re-pub'-lĭ-cā.	Ac. res-pub'-li-cas.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.
N. jus-ju-ran'-dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran'-da,	N. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as,
G. ju-ris-ju-ran'-di,		G. ma-tris-fa-mil'-i-as,
D. ju-ri-ju-ran'-do,		D. ma-tri-fa-mil'-i-as,
Ac. jus-ju-ran'-dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, ju-ra-ju-ran'-da.	Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i-as,
V. jus-ju-ran'-dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran -ua.	V. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as,
Ab. ju-re-ju-ran'-do.		Ab. ma-tre-fa-mil'-i-as, etc.

Note. The preceding compounds are divided and pronounced like the simple words of which they are compounded.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

§ **92.** Irregular nouns are divided into three classes— Variable, Defective, and Redundant.

I. VARIABLE NOUNS.

A noun is variable, which, in some of its parts, changes either its gender or declension or both.

Nouns which vary in gender are called *heterogeneous*; those which vary in declension are called *heteroclites*.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

- Masculine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, Avernus, Dindýmus, Ismărus, Massicus, Manălus, Pangaus, Tartărus, Taygetus; plur. Averna, etc.
- 2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as,

jócus, a jest; plur. jóci, or jóca;—lócus, a place; plur. lóci, passages in books, topics, places; lóca, places;—sibilus, a hissing; plur. sibila, rarely sibili;—intübus, endive; plur. intübi or intüba.

- 3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, carbăsus, a species of flax; plur. carbăsa, very rarely carbăsi, sails, etc., made of it;—Hierosolyma, -æ, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosolyma, -ōrum.
- 4. Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural; as, cælum, heaven; plur. cæli;—Elysium; plur. Elysii;—Argos; plur. Argi. So siser, neut., plur. sisères, masc.
- 5. Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as,

frēnum, a bridle; plur. frēni or frēna;—rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or, more rarely, rastra;—pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugillāres or pugillaria.

- 6. Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as, epūlum, a feast; plur. epūlu: —balneum, a bath; plur. balneæ or balnea;—nundinum, a market-day; plur. nundinæ, a fair.
- 7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as,

delicia or delicium, delight; plur. deliciæ.

Heteroclites.

§ 93. 1. Second or third declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as,

nom. and acc. jugërum, an acre; gen. jugëri or jugëris; abl. jugëro and jugëre; plur., nom., and acc. jugëra; gen. jugërum; abl. jugëris and jugeribus.

2. Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural; as, vās, a vessel; plur. vāsa, ōrum. Ancīle, a shield, has sometimes anciliōrum, in the genitive plural.

Note. Variable nouns seem anciently to have been redundant, and to have retained a part of each of their original forms. Thus. vāsa. -ōrum, properly comes from vāsum, -i, but the latter, together with the plural of vas, vāsis, became obsolete.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

Nouns are defective either in case or in number.

1. Nouns defective in case may want either one or more cases. Some are altogether indeclinable, and are called aptotes.

Such are pondo, a pound; most nouns in i; as, gummi, gum: foreign words; as, Aaron, Jacob: simis, a half; git, a kind of plant; the singular of mille, a thousand; words put for nouns; as, relle suum, for sua voluntas, his own inclination; and names of the letters of the alphabet.

A noun which is found in one case only, is called a Monoptote; if found in two cases, a Diptote; if in three, a Triptote; if in four, a Tetraptote; and if in five, a Pentaptote.

The following list contains most nouns defective in case. Those which occur but once in Latin authors are distinguished by an asterisk:-

*Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving away. Accitu, abl.; a calling for. Admissu, abl.; admission.

Admonitu, abl.; admonition. Æs, not used in gen. pl.

Affatu, abl.; an addressing; -pl. affatus, -ĭbus.

Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, abl.;

Ambage, abl.; a going around; -pl. entire.

*Amissum, acc.; a loss.

Aplustre, nom. and acc.; the flag of a ship ;-pl. aplustria, or aplustra.

Arbitrātus, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; judgment.

Arcessitu, abl.; a sending for.

Astu, nom., acc.; a city.

Astus, nom.; astu, abl.; craft;—astus, acc. pl. Cacoethes, nom., acc.; an evil cus-

tom; -cacoethe, nom. pl.; -e, and -es, acc. pl.

Canities, nom.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.

Cētos, acc.; a whale; -cēte, nom. and acc. pl.; cetis, dat.

Chaos, nom. acc.; chao, abl.; chaos. Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net;-pl.

Circumspectus, nom.; -um; -u; a looking around.

Coactu, abl.; constraint.

Coelite, abl.; pl. entire; inhabitants of

*Commutatum, acc.; an alteration. Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fet-ter;—pl. compědes, -ium, -ibus.

Concessu, abl.; permission. Condiscipulatu, abl.; companionship at

Crātim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hur-

dle ;-pl. crātes, -ium, -ibus. Cupressu, abl.; a cypress.

Daps, nom., scarcely used; dapis, gen. etc. pl. dapes, -ibus; a feast.

*Dătu, abl.; a giving. Derīsus, -ui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.;

ridicule.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

Despicatui, dat.; contempt.

Dica, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal process;—dicas, acc. pl.

Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratia, for form's

Ditionis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

abl.; power. Diu, abl.; in the day time.

Divisui, dat.; a dividing.

Ebur, ivory; -not used in the plural.

*Efflagitātu, abl.; importunity. *Ejectus, nom.; a throwing out. Epos, nom. and acc.; an epic poem. Ergo, abl. (or adv.); for the sake.

Essedas, acc. pl.; war chariots. Evectus, nom.; a carrying out. Fæx, dregs, wants gen. pl. Fămē, abl.; hunger.

Far, corn, not used in the gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Fas, nom.; acc.; right. Fauce, abl.; the throat;—pl. entire. Fax, a torch, wants gen. pl.

Fel, gall, wants gen. pl.

Feminis, gen.; -i, dat.; -c, abl.; the thigh; -pl. femina, -ibus.

Flictu, abl.; a striking.

Foris, nom. and gen.; -em, acc; -e, abl.; a door;—pl. entire.

Fors, nom.; -tis, gen.; -tem, acc.; -te, abl.; chance.

*Frustratui, abl.; a deceiving. Frux, fruit, nom. scarcely used;frugis, gen., etc.

Fulgetras, acc. pl.; lightning. Gausape, nom., acc., abl.; a rough gar-

ment; -gausapa, acc. pl. Glos, nom.; a husband's sister.

Grātes, acc. pl.; -gratībus, abl.; thanks. Hebdomadam, acc.; a week.

Hiems, winter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Hippomanes, nom. and acc.

*Hir, nom.; the palm of the hand. Hortatu, abl.; an exhorting; -pl. hor-

tatĭbus. Impetis, gen.; -e, abl.; a shock; -pl.

impetibus.

Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incitas reductus, reduced to a strait. *Inconsultu, abl.; without advice.

*Indultu, abl.; indulgence.

Inferiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; -is, abl.; sacrifices to the dead.

Infitias, acc. pl.; a denial; as, ire infitias, to deny.

Ingratiis, abl. pl., (used adverbially); against one's will.

Injussu, abl.; without command. Inquies, nom.; restlessness.

Instar, nom., acc.: a likeness.

Interdiu, abl. (or adv.); in the day time. *Invitātu, abl.; an invitation. Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; de-

rision. Jovis, nom., rarely used; -pl. Joves.

Jugeris, gen.; -e, abl.; an acre;-pl. jugėra, -um, -ibus. Jussu, abl.; command.

Lābes, a spot, wants gen. pl. Lūcu, abl.; day-light. *Ludificatui, dat.; a mockery.

Lux, light, wants the gen. Mandatu, abl.; a command.

Mane, nom., acc.; mane, or rarely -i, abl.; the morning. Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and

Mělos, nom., acc.; melo, dat.; melody; -měle, nom., acc. pl.

Mětus, fear, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl. Missu, abl.; a sending; -pl. missus,

-ĭbus. Monitu, abl.; admonition; pl. monĭtus.

Nātu, abl.; by birth.

Nauci, gen., with non; as, homo non nauci, a man of no account.

Něfas, nom., acc.; wickedness. Nēmo, nobody, wants the voc. and the pl.

Nepenthes, nom., acc.; an herb. Nex, death, wants the voc.; -neces, nom., acc. pl.

Nihil, or nihilum, nom. and acc.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; nothing.

Noctu, abl.; by night.

Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abt.; marriage. Obex, nom.; -icem, acc.; -ice, or -jice,

abl.; a bolt; -pl. obices, -jicibus. Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposi-

tion; -pl. objectus. Obtentui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a pretext.

Opis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.; help;—pl. entire.

Oppositu, abl.; an opposing; -pl. oppositus, acc.

Opus, nom., acc.; need.

Os, the mouth, wants the gen. pl. Panaces, nom.; -is, gen.; -e, abl.; an herb.

Pax, peace, wants gen. pl. Peccatu, abl.; a fault.

Pecudis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl. ;-pl. entire.

Pelăge, acc. pl. of pelăgus; the sea. Permissu, abl.; -um, acc.; permission. Piscatus, nom.; -i, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a fishing.

Pix, pitch; pices, acc. pl. Pondo, abl.; in weight. Cf. § 94, 1. Preci, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; prayer; -pl. entire.

Procer; nom.; -em, acc.; a peer;-pl. entire.

Promptu, abl., readiness. Pus wants gen. dat. and abl. pl. Relatum, acc.;—u, abl.; a recital. Repetundarum, gen. pl.; -is, abl.; money taken by extortion.

Rogātu, abl.; a request. Ros, dew, wants gen. pl.

Rus, the country, wants gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Satias, nom.; -ātem, acc.; āte, abl.; satiety.

Sĕcus, nom., acc.; sex.

Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situation ;-situs, nom. and acc. pl. Situs, nom.; -us, gen.; -um, acc.; -u,

abl.; rust; -situs, acc. pl. Sol, the sun, wants gen. pl.

Sordis, gen.; -em, acc.; -e and -i, abl; filth;—pl. sordes,-ium, etc.
Spontis, gen.; -e, abl.; of one's own
accord.

Subŏles, offspring, wants gen. pl.

Suppetiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; sup-

Tābum, nom.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; corrupt matter.

Tempe, nom. acc. voc. pl.; a vale in Thessaly.

Tus wants gen., dat., and abl. pl. Vēnui and -o, dat.; um, acc.; -o, abl.;

Veprem, acc.; -e, abl.; a brier; -pl. entire. Verberis, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe; -pl.

verběra, um, ĭbus. Vesper, nom.; -um, acc-; -e, -i, or -o,

abl.; the evening.

Vespera, nom.; -am, acc.; -a, abl.; the evening.

Vicis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; change; -pl. entire, except gen. Vīrus, nom.; -i, gen,; -us, acc.; -o, abl.; poison.

Vis, gen. and dat. rare; strength; pl. vires, -ium, etc. See § 85.

Viscus, nom.; -eris, gen.; -ere, abl.; an internal organ. pl. viscera, etc. Vocātu, abl.; a calling; -- vocātus, acc.

REMARK 1. To these may be added nouns of the fifth declension, which either want the plural, as most of them are abstract nouns, or have in that number only the nominative, accusative, and vocative. Res and dies, however, have the plural entire. Cf. § 90, R. 1.

REM. 2. For the use of the vocative, also, of many nouns, no classical au-

thority can be found.

§ 95. 2. Nouns defective in number, want either the plural or the singular.

(a) Many nouns want the plural from the nature of the things which they express. Such are generally names of persons, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), the names of herbs, of the arts, most material and abstract nouns; but these may have a plural when used as common nouns, (§ 26, R. 3.), and many others.

REM. In Latin the plural of abstract nouns is often used to denote the existence of the quality, attribute, etc. in different objects, or the repetition of an action; and in poetry such plurals are used for the sake of emphasis or metre. See § 98.

The following list contains many of the nouns which want the plural, and also some, marked p, which are included in the above classes, but are sometimes used in the plural.

Aconītum, wolfsbane, p. Adorea, a military reward. Aër, the air, p. Æs, brass, money, p. Æther, the sky.

Ævum, age, lifetime, p. Album, an album. Allium, garlic, p. Amicitia, friendship, p. Argilla, white clay. Avēna, outs, p.

Balaustium, the flower of the pomegranate. Balsamum, balsam, p. Barathrum, a gulf. Callum, hardened skin, p. Cálor, heat, p.

Carduus, a thistle, p. Căro, flesh, p. Cēra, wax, p. Cestus, a girdle. Cicūta, hemlock, p. Cœnum, mud. Contagium, contagion, p. Crocum, saffron. Crocus, saffron, p. Cruor, blood, p. Cutis, the skin, p. Diluculum, the dawn. Ebur, ivory. Electrum, amber, p. Far, corn, p. Fel, gall, p. Fervor, heat, p. Fides, faith. Fimus, dung. Fŭga, flight, p. Fūmus, smoke, p. Furor, madness, p. Galla, an oak-apple, p. Gelu, frost. Glarea, gravel. Gloria, glory, p. Glastum, woad. Glüten, or Glutinum, glue. Gypsum, white plaster. Hepar, the liver. Hesperus, the evening star. Hilum, a little thing. Hordeum, barley, p. Humus, the ground. Indoles, native quality, p. Ira, anger, p. Jubar, radiance. Jus, justice, law, p. Justitium, a law vacation.

Lac, milk. Lætitia, joy, p. Languor, faintness, p. Lardum, bacon, p. Lătex, liquor, p. Lētum, death. Lignum, wood, p. Līmus, mud. Liquor, liquor, p. Lues, a plague. Lŭtum, clay, p. Lux, light, p. Macellum, the shambles. Mane, the morning. Marmor, marble, p. Mel, honey, p. Meridies, mid-day. Mors, death, p. Munditia, neatness, p. Mundus, female ornaments. Muscus, moss. Nectar, nectar. Nēmo, no man. Nequitia, wickedness, p. Nihilum, nihil, or nil, nothing. Nitrum, natron. Oblivio, for getfulness, p. Omāsum, bullock's tripe. Opium, opium. Palea, chaff, p. Pax, peace, p. Pěnum, and Pěnus, provisions, p. Pĭper, pepper. Pix, pitch, p. Pontus, the sea. Prolubium, desire. Pūbes, the youth. Pulvis, dust, p.

Purpăra, purple, p. Quies, rest, p. Ros, dew, p. Rŭbor, redness, p. Sabulo and Sabŭlum, gravel. Sal, salt. Sălum, the sea. Sălus, safety. Sanguis, blood. Scrupulum, a scruple, p. Senium, old age. Siler, an osier. Sināpi, mustard. Siser, skirret, p. Sitis, thirst. Sol, the sun, p. Sŏpor, sleep, p. Specimen, an example. Spūma, foam, p. Sulfur, sulphur, p. Supellex, furniture. Tābes, a consumption. Tābum, corrupt matter. Tellus, the earth. Terror, terror, p. Thymum, thyme, p. Tribulus, a thistle, p. Tristitia, sadness. Ver, spring. Vespera, the evening. Veternus, lethargy. Vigor, strength, p. Vinum, wine, p. Vīrus, poison. Viscum, and Viscus, bird-lime. Vitrum, woud. Vulgus, the common peo-Zingiber, ginger.

§ **96.** (b). The names of festivals and games, and several names of places and books, want the singular; as, *Bacchanalia*, a festival of Bacchus; *Olympia*, the Olympic games; *Bucolica*, a book of pastorals; and the following names of places:—

Acroceraunia,	Baiæ,	Fundi,	Locri,	Sūsa,
Amvelæ,	Ceraunia,	Gabii.	Parisii,	Syracūsæ,
Artaxăta,	Echatăna,	Gādes,	Philippi,	Thermopylæ
Athēnæ,	Esquiliæ,	Gemoniæ,	Puteŏli,	Veii.

Note. Some of those in i properly signify the people.

The following list contains most other nouns which want the singular, and also some, marked s, which are rarely used in that number:—

Acta, records.	
Adversaria, a me	moran-
dum-book.	
Æstīva, sc. castra	i, sum-
mer quarters.	•

Alpes, the Alps, s.
Annales, annals, s.
Antæ, door-posts.
Antes, rows.
Antiæ, a foreloc':

Apinæ, trifles.
Argutiæ, witticisms, s.
Arma, arms.
Artus, the joints, s.
Bellaria, sweetmeuts.

Induviæ, clothes.

Insecta, insects.

Ineptiæ, fooleries, s. Inféri, the dead.

Justa, funeral rites.

Inferiæ, sacrifices in honor of the dead.

Insidiæ, an ambuscade, s.

Lactes, small entrails, s.

Lapicidinæ, a stone quar-

Latebræ, a hiding place,

Laurices, young rabbits.

eign ambassadors.

Lemures, hobgoblins.

Liberi, children, s.

Roman cavalry.

Majores, ancestors. Manes, the shades, s.

Manubiæ, spoils of war.

Multitia, garments finely wrought.

Naiades, water-nymphs, s.

Nomæ, corroding sores or

Nūgæ, jests, nonsense. Nundinæ, the weekly mar-

Nuptiæ, a marriage.

Offuciæ, cheats, s.

cratic party, s.

Oblivia, for getfulness, s.

Optimates, the aristo-

Munia, official duties.

Nāres, the nostrils, s.

Natāles, parentage. Nătes, the haunches, s.

ulcers., s. Nonæ, the nones of a month. § 326, 1.

Magalia, cottages.

Mapalia, huts, s.

Minores, posterity. Moenia, the walls of a

Minaciæ, and Minæ, threats.

city, s.

Lendes, nits

Lautia, presents to for-

Luceres, a division of the

Lamenta, lamentations.

Bīgæ, a two-horse chariot, s. Braccæ, breeches. Branchiæ, the gills of fishes.
Brevia, shallow places.
Calendæ, the Calends.
Cancelli, balustrades. Cani, gray hairs. Casses, a hunter's net, s. Caulæ, sheep-folds.
Celères, the body-guard
of the Roman kings. Cibaria, victuals, s. Clitellæ, a pack-saddle. Codicilli, a writing. Colites, the gods, s. Crepundia, a rattle. Cunabŭla, and Cūnæ, a cradle. Cyclades, the Cyclades, s. Decimæ, tithes, s. Dīræ, the Furies, s. Divitiæ, riches. Druides, the Druids. Dryades, the Dryads, s. Epule, a banquet, s. Eumenides, the Furies, s. Excubiæ, watches. Exsequiæ, funeral rites. Exta, entrails. Exuviæ, spoils. Facetiæ, pleasantry, s. Feriæ, holidays, s. Fides, a stringed instrument, s. Flabra, blasts.

Fraces, the lees of oil. Fraga, strawberries, s. Gemini, twins, s. Genæ, cheeks, s. Gerræ, trifles. Grates, thanks. Habēnæ, reins, s. Hiberna, sc. castra, winter quarters. Hyades, the Hyades, s.

Idus, the ides of a month. Ilia, the flank. Incunabula, a cradle. Indutiæ, a truce.

§ 97.

numbers.

Ædes, -is, a temple. Ædes, -ium, a house. Aqua, water.

Aquæ, medicinal springs. Auxilium, aid. Auxilia. auxiliary troops.

Bonum, a good thing. Bŏna, property. Carcer, a prison. Carceres, the barriers of a race-course. Castrum, a castle.

Comitium, a part of the R man forum. Co nitia, an assembly for election. Copia, plenty.

The following usually differ in meaning in the different Castra, a camp.

Vergiliæ, the seven stars. Vindiciæ, a legal claim, s. Virgulta, bushes.

Præbia, an amulet. Præcordia, the dia-phragm, the entrails. Primitiæ, first fruits. Proceres, nobles, s. Pugillaria, or -ares, writing-tablets, s. Quadrigæ, a team of four horses, s. Quirītes, Roman citizens, Quisquiliæ, refuse. Reliquiæ, the remains, s. Salebræ, rugged roads, B. Salīnæ, salt pits. Scālæ, a ladder, s. Scatebræ, a spring, s. Scōpæ, a broom. Scrūta, old stuff. Sentes, thorns, s. Sponsalia, espousals. Statīva, sc. castra, stationary camp. Superi, the gods above. Talaria, winged shoes.

Palearia, the dewlap, s.

Pandectæ, the pandects. Parietinæ, old walls.

Penātes, household gods,

Partes, a party, s.

Pascua, pastures, s.

Phaleræ, trappings.

Philtra, love potions. Pleiades, the Pleiads or

seven stars, s. Postěri, posterity.

Tenebræ, darkness, s. Tesca, rough places. Thermæ, warm baths. Tormina, colic-pains.

Transtra, seats for rowers, s.

Trīcæ, trifles, toys. Utensilia, utensils. Valvæ, folding doors, s. Vepres, brambles, s.

Copiæ, troops, forces.
Cupediæ, -æ, daintiness.
Cupediæ, -ārum, and
Cupedia, -ōrum, dainties.
Facultas, ability.
Facultātes, property.
Fastus, -ūs, pride.
Fastus, -ūrum, and
Fasti, -ōrum, a calendar.
Fortūna, Fortune.
Fortūna, wealth.
Furfur, bran.
Furfūres, dandruff.
Gratia, favor.
Gratia, thanks.

Impedimentum, a hinderance.
Impedimenta, baggage.
Litera, a letter of the alplabet.
Litere, an epistle.
Lūdus, pastine.
Lūdi, public games.
Lustrum, a morrass.
Lustra, a haunt or den of
wild beasts.
Mos, custom.
Mores, manners.
Nāris, a nostril.
Nāres, the nose.

Natālis, a birthday.
Natāles, birth, lineage.
Opēra, work, labor.
Opēra, workmen.
Opis, gen. power.
Opes, -um, means, wealth.
Plāga, a region, tract.
Plāga, nets, toils.
Principium, a beginning.
Principia, the general's quarters.
Rostrum, a beak, prow.
Rostra, the Rostra.
Sal, salt.
Sals, salt.
Sāles, witticisms.

§ 98. The following plurals, with a few others, are sometimes used in poetry, especially in the nominative and accusative, instead of the singular, for the sake of emphasis or metre.

Æquŏra, the sea. Alta, the sea. Animi, courage. Auræ, the air. Carinæ, a keel. Cervices, the neck. Colla, the neck. Comæ, the hair. Connubia, marriage. Corda, the heart. Corpora, a body. Crepuscula, twilight. Currus, a chariot. Exsilia, banishment. Frigora, cold. Gaudia, joy. Gramina, grass. Guttura, the throat.

Hymenæi, marriage. Ignes, love. Inguina, the groin. Iræ, anger. Jejunia, fasting. Jubæ, a mane. Limina, a threshold. Litora, a shore. Mensæ, a service or course of dishes. Neniæ, a funeral dirge. Numina, the divinity. Odia, hatred. Ora, the mouth, the countenance. Oræ, confines. Ortus, a rising, the east. Otia, ease, leisure.

Pectora, the breast. Reditūs, a return. Regna, a kingdom. Rictus, the jaws. Robora, strength. Silentia, silence. Sinus, the bosom of a Roman garment. Tædæ, a torch. Tempora, time. Terga, the back. Thalami, marriage or marriage-bed. Tŏri, a bed, a couch. Tūra, frankincense. Viæ, a journey. Vultus, the countenance.

III. REDUNDANT NOUNS.

- § 99. Nouns are redundant either in termination, in declension, in gender, or in two or more of these respects.
- 1. In termination: (a.) of the nominative; as, arbor, and arbos, a tree: (b.) of the oblique cases; as, tigris,; gen. tigris, or -idis; a tiger.
 - 2. In declension; as, laurus; gen. -i, or -ūs; a laurel.
 - 3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.
- 4. In termination and declension; as, senecta, -æ, and senectus, -ūtis; old age.
 - 5. In termination and gender; as pileus, masc., and pileum, neut.; a hat.
- 6. In declension and gender; as pžnus, -i or ūs, masc. or fem., and pžnus, -ŏris, neut.; a store of provisions. Spžcus, -ūs or -i, masc. fem. or neut.; a cave.
- 7. In termination, declension, and gender; as, mendu, -a, fem. and mendum, -i, neut.; a fault.

The following list contains most Redundant Nouns of the above classes:-

REDUNDANT NOUNS.

Acinus, -um, and -a, a berry. Adagium, and -io, a proverb. Admonitio, -um, and -us, ūs, a reminding.

Æthra, and æther, the clear sky. Affectio, and -us, ūs, affection. Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon. Alabaster, tri, and pl. -tra, orum, an

alabaster box. Alimonia, and -um, aliment. Alluvio, and -es, a flood. Alvearium, and -are, a bee-hive. Amaracus, and -um, marjoram. Amygdăla, and -um, an almond. Anfractum, and -us, ūs, a winding. Angiportum, and -us, ūs, a narrow lane

or alley. Antidotus, and -um, an antidote. Aranea, and -us, i, a spider.
Aran, and Ariris, the river Arar.
Arbor, and -os, a tree.
Architectus, and -on, an architect.
Arcus, -ūs, and i, a bow. Attagena, and -gen, a moor-hen. Avaritia, and -ies, avarice. Augmentum, and -men, an increase. Baccar, and -aris, a kind of herb. Baculus, and -um, a staff. Balteus, and -um, a belt. Barbaria, and -ies, barbarism. Barbitus, and -on, a harp. Batillus, and -um, a fire-shovel. Blanditia, and -ies, flattery. Buccina, and -um, a trumpet. Būra, and -is, a plough-tail. Buxus, and -um, the box-tree. Cæpa, and cæpe, an onion. Calamister, tri, and -trum, a crisping-

Callus, and -um, hardened skin. Caucer, cri, or eris, a crab. Canitia, and -ies, hoariness. Cāpus, and cāpo, a capon. Carrus, and -um, a kind of waggon.
Cassida, and -cassis, a helmet.
Catīnus, and -um, a bowl, dish.
Chirographus, and -um, a hand-writing. Cingula, -us, and -um, a girdle. Clipeus, and -um, a shield. Cochlearium, -ar, and -are, a spoon. Colluvio, and -ies, filth. Commentarius, and -um, a journal. Compages, and -go, a joining. Conātum, and -us, ūs, an attempt. Concinnitas, and -tūdo, neatness. Consortium, and -io, partnership. Contagium, -io, and -es, contact. Cornum, -us, i, or ūs, a cornel tree.

Costos, i, and -um, a kind of shrub.

Cratera, and crater, a bowl. Crocus, and -um, saffron. Crystallus, and -um, crystal. Cubitus, and -um, the elbow. Cupiditas, and -pido, desire. Cupressus, i, or ūs, a cypress-tree. Delicia, and -um, delight. Delphinus, and delphin, a dolphin. Dictamnus, and -um, dittany. Diluvium, -o, and -ies, a deluge. Domus, i, or ūs, a house. Dorsus, and -um, the back. Duritia, and -ies, hardness. Effigia, and -ies, an image. Elegia, and -on, i, an elegy. Elephantus, and -phas, an elephant. Epitoma, and -e, an abridgment. Esseda, and -um, a chariot. Evander, dri, and -drus, Evander. Eventum, and -us, ūs, an event. Exemplar, and -āre, a pattern.
Ficus, i, or ūs, a fig-tree.
Fimus, and -um, dung.
Frētum, and -us, ūs, a strait.
Fulgetra, and -um, lightning. Galerus, and -um, a hat, cap. Ganea, and -um, an eating-house. Gausapa, -es, -e, and -um, frieze. Gibba, -us, and -er, čri, a hump. Glutinum, and -ten, glue. Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon. Grammatica, and -e, grammar. Grus, gruis, and gruis, is, a crane. Hebdomada, and -mas, a week. Helleborus, and -um, hellebore. Honor, and honos, honor. Hyssopus, and -um, hyssop. Ilios, -um, and -on, Troy. Incestum, and -us, ūs, incest. Intubus, and -um, endive. Jugulus, and -um, the throat. Juventa, -us, ūtis, and -as, youth. Lăbor, and labos, labor. Lacerta, and -us, a lizard. Laurus, i, or ūs, a laurel. Lepor, and lepos, wit. Ligur, and -us, ŭris, a Ligurian. Lupinus, and -um, a lupine. Luxuria, and -ies, luxury. Mæander, -dros, and -drus, Mæander. Margarita, and -um, a pearl. Materia, and -ies, materials. Medimnus, and -um, a measure. Menda, and -um, a foult. Modius, and -um, a measure. Mollitia, and -ies, softness. Momentum, and -men, influence. Mūgil, and -ĭlis, a mullet. Mulciber, ěri, or ěris, Vulcan.

Mulctra, and -um, a milk-pail. Munditia, and -ies, neatness. Muria, and -ies, brine or pickle. Myrtus, i or ūs, a myrtle. Nardus, and -um, nard. Nasus, and -um, the nose. Necessitas, and -udo, necessity. Nequitia, and -ies, worthlessness. Notitia, and -ies, knowledge. Oblivium, and -io, forgetfulness. Obsidium, and -io, a siege. Edipus, i, or odis, Edipus. Ostrea, and -um, an oyster. Palātus, and -um, the palate. Palumba, -us, and -es, a pigeon. Papyrus, and -um, papyrus. Paupertas, and -ies, poverty. Pāvus, and pāvo, a peacock. Pěnus, i, -oris, or ūs, and pěnum, provisions. Peplus, and -um, a reil. Perseus, ei, or eos, Perseus. Pileus, and -um, a hat. Pīnus, i, or ūs, a pine-tree. Pistrīna, and -um, a bake-house. Planitia, and -ies, a plain. Plato, and Platon, Plato. Plebs, and plebes, ei, the common people. Porrus, and -um, a leek. Postulatum, and -io, a request. Præsēpia, -ium, -es, or -is, and -e, a stable. Prætextum, and -us, us, a pretext. Prosapia, and -ies, lineage. Rāpa, and -um, a turnip. Requies, ētis or ēt, rest. Rēte, and rētis, a net. Reticulus, and -um, a small net.

Rictum, and -us, ūs, the open mouth. Sævitia, -ūdo and -ies, ferocity. Săgus, and -uin, a military cloak. Sanguis, and sanguen, blood. Satrapes, and satraps, a satrap. Scabritia, and -ies, roughness. Scorpius, -os, and -io, a scorpion. Segmentum, and -men, a piece. Segnitia, and -ies, sloth. Senecta, and -us, old age. Sequester, tri, or tris, a trustee. Sesama, and -um, sesame. Sibilus, and -a, orum, a hissing. Sināpi, and -is, mustard. Sīnus, and -um, a goblet. Spărus, and -a, ōrum, a spear. Spurcitia, and -ies, filthiness. Stramentum, and -men, straw. Suffimentum, and -men, fumigation. Suggestus, and -um, a pulpit, stage. Suppărus, and -um, a linen garment. Supplicium, -icamentum, and -icatio, a public supplication. Tapētum, -ēte, and -es, tapestry. Teneritas, and -tūdo, softness. Tergum, and -us, oris, the back. Tiāra, and -as, a turban. Tignus, and -um, a beam, timber. Tigris, is, or idis, a tiger. Titanus, and Titan, Titan. Tonitruum, and -trus, ūs, thunder. Torāle, and -al, a bed-covering. Tribes, and trabs, a beam. Tribes, and trabs, a beam.
Tribula, and -um, a threshing sledge.
Vespera, -per, eri and eris, the evening.
Vinaceus, and -a, orum, a grape-stone.
Viscus, and -um, the mistletoe. Vulgus, masc. and neut., the common people.

REMARK 1. To these may be added some other verbals in us and io, and Greek nouns in o and on; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and e, which have Latin forms in a; as, $Atr\bar{\imath}des$ and $Atr\bar{\imath}da$. See § 45.

Rem. 2. Some proper names of places also are redundant in number; as, Argos and Argi; Fidena and Fidena; Thebe and Theba.

Note. The different forms of most words in the above list are not equally common, and some are rarely used, or only in particular cases.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

§ 100. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.

I. From Nouns.

From nouns are derived the following classes:-

1. A patronymic is the name of a person, derived from that of his father or other ancestor, or of the founder of his nation.

- Note 1. Patronymics are properly Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that language by the Latin poets.
 - (a.) Masculine patronymics end in ides, ides, ades, and iddes.
- (1.) Nouns in us of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a short syllable, form their patronymics in ides; as, Priamus, Priamides; Agamemnon, gen. onis, Agamemnonides.
- (2.) Nouns in $\bar{e}us$ and cles form their patronymics in $\bar{i}des$; as, A-tr $\bar{e}us$, $Atr\bar{i}des$; Heraclises.
- Rem. 1. $\mathcal{E}n\bar{u}des$, in Virg. A. 9, 653, is formed in like manner, as if from $\mathcal{E}n\bar{e}us$, instead of $\mathcal{E}n\bar{e}as$.
- (3.) Nouns in ās and ēs of the first declension form their patronymics in ădes, as Ænēās, Ænēādes; Hippŏtēs, Hippŏtādes.
- (4.) Nouns in ius of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a long vowel, form their patronymics in iàdes; as, Thestius, Thestiades; Amphitryō (gen. ōnis), Amphitryoniades.
- REM 2. A few nouns also of the first declension have patronymics in iddes; as, Anchises, Anchisiddes.
- (b.) Feminine patronymics end in is, ēis, and ias, and correspond in termination to the masculines, viz. is to ĭdes, ēis to īdes, and ias to ĭdes; as, Tyndārus, masc. Tyndarīdes, fem. Tyndāris; Nēreus, masc. Nereīdes, fem. Nerēis; Thestius, masc. Thestĭādes, fem. Thestĭas.
- REM. 3. A few feminines are found in ine, or ione; as, Nerine, Acrisione, from Nereus and Acrisius.
- NOTE 2. Patronymics in des and ne are of the first declension; those in is and as, of the third.
- 2. A patrial or gentile noun is derived from the name of a country; and denotes an inhabitant of that country; as,
- Trōs, a Trojan man; Trōas, a Trojan woman: Macedo, a Macedonian; Samnis, a Samnite; from Trōja, Macedonia, and Samnium.
- Note 3. Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, homo, civis, etc. See § 128, 6.
- 3. A diminutive signifies a small thing of the kind denoted by the primitive; as, liber, a book; libellus, a little book.

Diminutives generally end in *ŭlus*, *ŭla*, *ŭlum*, or *cŭlus*, *cŭla*, *cŭlum*, according as the primitive is masuline, feminine, or neuter.

- A.1. If the primitive is of the first or second declension, or its root ends in c, g, d, or t after a vowel, the diminutive is formed by annexing $\ddot{u}lus$, a, um to the root; as, $ar\ddot{u}la$, $ser\ddot{u}lus$, $puer\ddot{u}lus$, $seut\ddot{u}lum$, $cornic \ddot{u}la$, $reg\ddot{u}lus$, $capit\ddot{u}lum$, $merced\ddot{u}la$; from $\ddot{a}ra$, servus, puer, $se\ddot{u}tum$, cornic, $(-\ddot{c}is)$, rex, $(r\ddot{e}gis)$, $c\ddot{q}put$, (-ttis), merces, $(-\ddot{e}dis.)$
- 2. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in e or i, instead of úlus, a, um, add ólus, a, um; as, filiólus, ylorióla, horreólum; from filius, yloria, horreum.
- 3. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in l, n, or r, form diminutives by contraction in ellus, a, um, and some in illus, a, um; as, occlus, asellus, libellus, lucellum; from oculus, asina, liber, lucrum; and sigillum, tigillum, from signum, tignum.
- B. 1. If the primitive is of the third, fourth, or fifth declension, the diminutive is formed in $c\bar{u}lus$, (or $ic\bar{u}lus$), a,um.
- 2. Primitives of the third declension whose nominative ends in r, or in os or us from roots ending in r, annex călus to the nominative; as, fratercălus, soror-

căla, oscălum, corpuscălum; from frăter, sŏror, ŏs, (ŏris), corpus, (-ŏris).—So also primitives in es and is, but these drop the s of the nominative; as, ignicălus, nābecăla, diecăla; from ignis, nābes, dies.

3. Primitives of other terminations of the third declension, and those of the fourth, add iculus to the root; as, ponticulus, coticula, ossiculum, versiculus, corniculum; from pons, cos, os, (ossis), versus, cornu.

4. Primitives in o, (inis or onis), in adding culus, a, um, change the final vowel of the root (i or o) into u; as, homunculus, sermunculus; from homo and sermo; and a few primitives of other terminations form similar diminutives; as, avunculus, domunculu; from avus and domus.

C. 1. A few diminutives end in uleus, as, equuleus, aculeus; from equus and acus; and a few also in io; as, homuncio, senecio, from homo and senex.

2. Diminutives are sometimes formed from other diminutives; as, asellūlus, from asellus; sometimes two or more diminutives with different terminations are formed from the same primitive, as, homuncūlus, homullus, and homuncio; from hōmo; and sometimes the primitive undergoes euphonic changes; as rumuscūlus, from rūmor.

REM. Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as ranunculus, scamillus, from rana and scamnum.

4. (a.) An amplificative is a personal appellation denoting an ex-

cess of that which is expressed by its primitive; as,

Cupito, one who has a large head: so nāso, labeo, bucco, fronto, mento, one who has a large nose, lips, or cheeks, a broad forehead or long chin; from căput, nāsus, labia, bucca, frons, and mentum.

(b.) A few personal appellatives in io denote the trade or profession to which a person belongs; as, ludio, an actor; pellio, a furrier; from lūdus, and pellis.

5. The termination ium added to the root of a noun, indicates the office or condition, and often, derivatively, an assemblage of the individuals denoted by the primitive; as, collegium, colleagueship, and thence an assembly of colleagues; servitum, servitude, and collectively the servants; so sacerdotium, and ministerium; from collega, servus, sacerdos, and minister.

6. The termination imonium is added to the root of a few nouns, denoting something derived from the primitives, or imparting to it its peculiar character; as, testimonium, testimony; so vadimonium, patrimonium, matrimonium; from testis, vās (vādis), pāter, and māter.

7. The termination ētum, added to the root of names of plants, denotes a place where they grow in abundance; as, quercētum, laurētum, olivētum, from quercus, laurus, and olīva.

So, also, asculētum, dumētum, myrtētum, and by analogy saxētum. But some drop e; as, carectum, salictum, virgultum, and arbustum.

8. The termination *ārium*, added to the root of a noun, denotes a receptacle of the things signified by the primitive; as, *aviārium*, an aviary; *plantārium*, a nursery; from *āvis*, a bird, and *planta*, a plant.

9. The termination *ile*, added to the root of names of animals, marks the place where they are kept; as, bovile, a stall for oxen; so caprile, ovile; from bos, an ox, caper, a goat, and ovis, a sheep.

Note 1. This class and the preceding are properly neuter adjectives.

Note 2. Abstract nouns are derived either from adjectives or from verbs. See § 26, 5.

II. FROM ADJECTIVES.

§ 101. 1. Abstract nouns are formed by adding the termination tas, itado, ia, itia or ities, ēdo, and imonia to the root of the primitive.

- 2. Abstracts in itas, (equivalent to the English ty or ity), are formed from adjectives of each declension; as, cupiditas, teneritas, celeritas, crudelitas, fe'icitas; from cupidus, těner, cěler, crudělis, and fēlix.
- (1.) When the root ends in i, the abstract is formed in étas; as, piètas, from pius; and when it ends in t, as only is added; as, honestas from honestus.
- (2.) In a few abstracts i before tas is dropped; as, libertas, juventas, from liber, juventas. In facultas and difficultas, from facilis, difficilis, there is a change also in the root-yowel from i to u.
- (3.) A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of itus; as, servitus, jurentus, from servus and juvėnis. See § 76, Exc. 2.
- 3. Abstracts in *itūdo* are formed from adjectives in *us*, and some from adjectives of the third declension of two or three terminations; as, *magnitūdo*, *altitūdo*, *fortitūdo*, *acritūdo*, from *magnus*, *altus*, *fortis*, ācer. Polysyllabic adjectives in *tus*, generally form their abstracts by adding ūdo instead of *itūdo* to their root; as, *consuetūdo*, from *consuctus*.
- 4. Abstracts in ia (equivalent to the English ce or cy,) are for the most part formed from adjectives of one termination; as, clementia, constantia, impudentia, from clemens, constants, impudens. But some adjectives in us and er, including verbals in cundus, likewise form their verbals in ia; as, miseria, angustia, facundia, from miser, angustus, facundus.
- 5. Abstracts in itia and ities are formed from adjectives in us and is; as, justitia, tristitia, duritia, and durities, segnitia and segnities, from justus, tristis, durus, and segnis.
- 6. A few abstracts are formed in $\bar{c}do$, and a few in $im\bar{o}nia$; and sometimes two or more abstracts of different terminations are formed from the same adjective; as, acritas, acritado, $acr\bar{c}do$, and acrimonia, from $\bar{c}cer$. In such case those in $t\bar{t}ado$ and imonia seem to be more intensive in signification than those in ttas.

REMARK. Adjectives, as distinguished from the abstracts which are formed from them, are called *concretes*.

III. FROM VERBS.

§ 102. Nouns derived from verbs are called verbal nouns.

The following are the principal classes:-

- 1. Abstract nouns expressing the action or condition denoted by a verb, especially by a neuter verb, are formed by annexing or to their first root; as, āmor, love; fāvor, favor; mæror, grief; splendor, brightness; from ǎmo, fāveo, nucreo, and splendeo.
- 2. (a.) Abstracts are also formed from many verbs by annexing ium to the first or to the third root; as, colloquium, a conference; gaudium, joy; exordium, a beginning; exitium, destruction; solatium, consolation; from collòquor, gaudeo, exordior, exeo and solor.
- 3. Some verbal abstracts are formed by annexing ēla, imōnia, or imōniam, to the first root of the verb; as, querēla and querimonia, a complaint; suadēla, persuasion; from queror and suadeo.
- 4. (a.) The terminations men and mentum, added to the first root of the verb, generally with a connecting vowel, denote the thing to which the action belongs, both actively and passively, or a means for the performance of the action; as, fulmen from fulgeo, flamen from fluo, agmen from ago, solamen from solor, documentum from doceo, blandimentum from blandior.
- (b.) The final consonant of the root is often dropped, and the preceding and connecting vowels contracted into one syllable; as, \$\tilde{a}go\$, (\$\tilde{a}gimen_*)\$ agmen; force, (formentum,) fomentum.

- (c.) Some words of this class have no primitive verb in use; as, atramentum, ink; but, in this case, the connecting vowel seems to imply its reference to such a verb as atrāre, to blacken.
- 5. (a.) The terminations *ūlum*, *būlum*, *cūlum*; *brum*, *crum*, *trum*, annexed to the first root of a verb, denote an instrument for performing the act expressed by the verb, or a place for its performance; as, *cīngūlum*, *opercūlum*, *venabūlum*, *ventilābrum*, *fulcrum*, *spectrum*, from *cingo*, *operio*, *vēnor*, *ventilo*, *fulcio*, *spēcio*.
- (b.) Sometimes călum is contracted into clum; as, vinclum for vinculum. Sometimes, also, s is inserted before trum; as, rostrum, from rōdo, and a connecting vowel is placed before this and some of the other terminations; as, ardtrum, stabūlum, cubicūlum, from āro, sto, and cūbo.
- (c.) Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabülum, a vinegar cruet; turibülum, a censer; from acētum and tus.
- 6. (a.) Nouns formed by adding or and rix to the third root of the verb, denote respectively the male and female agent of the action expressed by the verb; as, adjūtor, fautor, fautor, a favorer; victor, victriz, a conqueror; from adjūto (adjūto), fāveo (fauto), vinco (victo). They are often likewise used as adjectives. The feminine form is less common than the masculine, and when the third-root of the verb ends in s, the feminine is sometimes formed in trix; as, tondeo (tons-) tonstrix.
- (b.) Some nouns in tor are formed immediately from other nouns; as, viātor, a traveller; janitor, a door-keeper; from via and janua. In meretrix from mereo, i of the third root becomes e.
- (c.) The agent of a few verbs is denoted by the terminations a and o annexed to the first root; as, conviva, a guest; advėna, a stranger; scrība, a scribe; erro, a vagrant; bibo, a drunkard; comědo, a glutton, from convivo, advěnio, etc.
- 7. Many abstract nouns are formed by annexing io and us (gen. ūs) to the third root of a verb; as, actio, an action; lectio, reading; from āgo (act-), lēgo (lect-);—cantus, singing; vīsus, sight; ūsus, use; from cǎno (cant-), video (vīs-), ūtor (ūs-).
- REMARK 1. Nouns of both forms, and of like signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together; mōtio and mōtus, etc.
- REM. 2. Nouns formed by adding the termination $\bar{u}ra$ to the third root of a verb, sometimes have the same signification as those in io and us, and sometimes denote the result of an action; as, $posit\bar{u}ra$, position; $vinct\bar{u}ra$, a binding together; from $p\bar{v}no$, and vincto; and the termination $\bar{e}la$ has sometimes the same meaning; as, $quer\bar{e}la$, complaint; $loqu\bar{e}la$, speech, from $qu\bar{e}ror$ and loquor.

Note. One of these forms is generally used to the exclusion of the others, and when two or more are found, they are usually employed in somewhat different senses.

8. The termination orium, added to the third root of a verb, denotes the place where the action of the verb is performed; as, auditorium, a lecture-room; conditorium, a repository; from audio and condo.

COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

§ 103. Compound nouns are formed variously:-

- 1. Of two nouns; as, rupicapra, a wild goat, of rūpes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive; as, senutūs consultum, a decree of the senate; juris consultus, a lawyer; in others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See § 91.
- 2. Of a noun and a verb; as, artifex, an artist, of ars and făcio; fdă-cen, a harper, of fides and căno; agricola, a husbandman, of áyer and colo.

3. Of an adjective and a noun; as, equinoctium, the equinox, of equus and nox; millepėda, a millepede, of mille and pes.

In duumvir, triumvir, decenvir, centumvir, the numeral adjective is in the genitive plural.

REMARK 1. When the former part of a compound word is a noun or an adjective, it usually ends in it, as, artifez, rupicapra, agricola, etc. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, quinquennium, of quinque and annus; magnanimus, of magnus and animus.

4. Of an adverb and a noun; as, něfas, wickedness; němo, nobody; of ne, fas, and hómo. So biduum, of bis and dies.

5. Of a preposition and a noun: as, incuria, want of care, of in and cūra. So intervallum, an interval; præcordia, the diaphragm; proverbium, a proverb; subsellium, a low seat; superficies, a surface.

REM. 2. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it: as, ignobilis, illepidus, imprudentia, irrumpo, of in and nobilis, lepidus, etc. See § 196.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 104. An adjective is a word which qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive.

Adjectives may be divided, according to their signification, into various classes; as denoting,

- 1. Character or quality; as, bonus, good; albus, white; amicus, friendly.
- 2. State or condition; as, felix, happy; dives, rich.
- 3. Possession; as, herīlis, a master's; patrius, a father's.
- 4. Quantity; as, magnus, great; tōtus, entire; parvus, small.
- 5. Number; as, ūnus, one; secundus, second; tot, so many; quot, as many. These are called numerals.
- 6. Time; as, annuus, yearly; hesternus, of yesterday; bīmus, of two years; trimestris, of three months.
 - 7. Place; as, altus, high; vicīnus, near; aërius, aërial; terrestris, terrestrial.
 - Material; as, aureus, golden; fagineus, beechen; terrēnus, earthen.
 Part; as, nullus, no one; aliquis, some one. These are called partitives.
- 10. Country; as, Romanus, Roman; Arpinas of Arpinum. These are called patrials.
- 11. Diminution; as, parvilus, from parvus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
- 12. Amplification; as, vinōsus and vinolentus, much given to wine; aurītus, having long ears. These are called amplificatives.
- 13. Relation; as, avidus, desirous of; memor, mindful of; insuetus. These are called relatives.
- 14. Interrogation; as, quantus? how great; qualis? of what kind; quot? how many? quotus? of what number? These are called interrogatives; and, when not used interrogatively, they are called correlatives.
- 15. Specification; as, tālis, such; tantus, so great; tot, so many. These are called demonstratives.

DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 105. 1. Adjectives are declined like substantives, and are either of the first and second declensions, or of the third only.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DE-CLENSIONS.

2. The masculine of adjectives belonging to the first and second declensions, ends either in us or in er. The feminine and neuter are formed respectively by annexing a and um to the root of the masculine. The masculine in us is declined like dominus; that in er like gener or ager; the feminine always like musa; and the neuter like

REMARK 1. The masculine of one adjective, sătur, -ŭra, -ŭrum, full, ends in ur, and is declined like gener.

Bonus, good. Singular.

		20	ny aiu.			
	Masc.		Fem.		Neut.	
N	bo'-nŭs.	. -	bo'-nă,	- 1-	bo'-nŭm,	
G. 1	bo'-nī,	٠,٠	bo'-næ,	1	bo'-nī,	
D.	bo'-nō, (3		bo'-næ,	13	bo'-nō,	
Ac.	bo'-nŭr		bo'-năm,		bo'-num,	
V.	bo'-nĕ,		bo'-nă,		bo'-num,	
Ab.	bo'-nō.		bo'-nā.		bo'-nō.	
	2	1	Plural.		6	
N.	bo'-nī,		bo'-næ,		bo'-nă,	
G.1	bo-no'-rum,	A	bo-nā'-rì	ím, 2	bo-nō'-rŭ	m,
D.	bo'-nīs,	13	bo'-nīs,	m	bo'-nīs,	1
Ac.	bo'-nōs,	G	bo'-nās,		bo'-nă,	
V. (3)	bo'-nī,		bo'-næ,		bo'-nă,	
Ab.	bo'-nīs.		bo'-nīs.		bo'-nīs.	
		, e-	(a).	**		

In like manner decline

Fi-dus, faithful. Al'-tus, high. Lon'-gus, long. Im -pro-bus, wicked. Plē'-nus, full. A-vā'-rus, covetous. Tac'-ĭ-tus, silent. Be-nig'-nus, kind. In-i'-quus, unjust.

Rem. 2. Like bonus are also declined all participles in us; as, A-mā'-tus. Am-a-tū'-rus. A-man'-dus.

Rem. 3. The masculine of the vocative singular of adjectives in us is sometimes like the nominative; as, O vir fortis atque amīcus. Hor. Meus has both mi and meus.

REM. 4. The genitive plural of distributive numerals ends commonly in am instead of orum; as, crassitudo binum digitorum. Plin.



3. Těner, tender.

Singular.

		Durig artar t	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
G.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rī,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rō,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rō,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,	ten'-ĕ-răm,	ten'-ĕ-rum,
V.	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-rum,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rō.	ten'-ĕ-rā.	ten'-ĕ-rō.
		Plural.	
Iv.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
G.	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,	ten-e-rā'-rum,	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rōs,	ten'-ĕ-rās,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
V.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.

In like manner are declined

As'-per, rough.

Ex'-ter, foreign.

Gib'-ber, crook-backed.

Lă-cer, torn:

Lă-cer, torn:

Pros'-per, prosperous.

Li'-ber, free.

Săi-tur, full.

Mi'-ser, wretched.

So also alter, except in the genitive and dative singular (see § 107), semifer, and the compounds of gero and fero; as, langer, opifer.

Note. Prosper is less frequent than prosperus, and exter is scarcely used in the nominative singular masculine.

§ 106. The other adjectives in er drop e in declension; as,

Piger, slothful.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	pi'-gĕr,	pi'-gră,	pi'-grŭm,
G.	pi'-grī,	pi'-græ,	pi'-grī,
D.	pi'-grō,	pi'-græ,	pi'-grō,
Ac.	pi'-grum,	pi'-grăm,	pi'-grŭm,
V.	pi'-gĕr,	pi'-gră,	pi'-grum,
Ab.	pi'-grō.	pi'-grā.	pi'-grō.
		Plural. du	do
N.	pi'-grī,	pi'-græ,	pi'-gră,
G.	pi-grō'-rum,	pi-grā'-rŭm.	
D.	pi-grō'-rum, pi'-grīs,	pi'-grīs,	pi-grō'-rum, pi'-gris,
Ac.	pi'-grōs,	pi'-grās,	pi'-gră,

pi'-græ,

pi'-grīs.

pi'-gră,

pi'-gris.

V.

Ab.

pi'-grī,

pi'-gris.

In like manner decline

Æ'-ger, sick.	Mă'-cer, lean.	Scă'-ber, rough.
A'-ter, black.	NI'-ger, black.	Si-nis'-ter, left.
Crē'-ber, frequent.	Pul'-cher, fair.	Tē'-ter, foul.
Gla'-ber, smooth.	Rŭ'-ber, red.	Vă'-fer, crafty.
In'-tĕ-ger, entire.	Să'-cer, sacred.	, , ,

Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, and less frequently -tera, -terum.

§ 107. Six adjectives in us, and three in er, have their genitive singular in ius, and their dative in $\bar{\imath}$, in all the genders:—

Alius, another.	Tōtus, whole.	Alter, -tĕra, -tĕrum, the other.
Nullus, no one.	Ullus, any.	Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the two.
Sõlus, alone.	Unus, one.	Neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.
Dolas, acores	Olius, olice	reactor, tru, -truin, notator.

To these may be added the other compounds of *uter,—namely, uterque, each of two; utercumque, uterlibet, and utervis, which of the two you please; gen. utriusque, etc.—also, alteruter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterius utrius; dat. alterutri. So alteruterque, and unusquisque. See § 138, 4.

Nullus, solus, totus, ullus, and unus are thus declined:-

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ū'-nŭs,	ū'-nă,	ū'-nŭm,
G.	u-nī'-ŭs,*	u-nĭ'-ŭs,	u-nī'-ŭs,
D.	u'-nī,	u'-nī,	u'-nī,
Ac.	u'-nŭm,	u'-năm,	u'-nŭm,
V.	u'-nĕ,	u'-nă,	u'-nŭm,
Ab.	u'-nō.	u'-nā.	u'-nō.

The plural is regular, like that of bonus.

REMARK 1. Alius has aliud in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in the genitive alius, contracted for aliius.

REM. 2. Except in the genitive and dative singular, alter is declined like tener,

and uter and neuter like piger.

REM. 3. Some of these adjectives, in early writers, and occasionally even in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, form their genitive and dative regularly, like bonus, tener, or piger.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

- § 108. Some adjectives of the third declension have three terminations in the nominative singular; some two; and others only one.
- I. Those of three terminations end in er, masc.; is, fem.; and e, neut.; and are thus declined:—

Acer, sharp.

	1 2	Singular.	
*	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ā'-cĕr,	ā'-crĭs,	ā'-crĕ,
G.	a'-crĭs,	a'-cris,	a'-cris,
D.	a'-crī,	a'-crī,	a'-crī,
Ac.	a'-crĕm,	a'-crĕm,	a'-crĕ,
V.	a'-cĕr,	a'-crĭs,	a'-crĕ,
Ab.	a'-crī.	a'-crī.	a'-crī.

Plural.

N.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
G.	a'-cri-ŭm,	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-ŭm,
D.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
V.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
Ab.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.

In like manner are declined the following;—

		3 ·
Al'-acer, cheerful. Cam-pes'-ter, champaign.	Pa-lus'-ter, marshy. Pe-des'-ter, on foot.	Sil-ves'-ter, woody. Ter-res'-ter, terrestrial.
Cel'-ĕ-ber, famous.	Pu'-ter, rotten.	Vol'-ŭ-cer, winged.
E-ques'-ter, equestrian.	Sa-lū'-ber, wholesome.	, ,

To these add names of months in -ber, used as adjectives; as, October, etc. (cf. § 71), and cèler, swift, which has celèris, celère; gen. celèris, etc.

REMARK 1. The termination er was anciently sometimes feminine; as, volucer fama. Petr.: and, on the other hand, the masculine often ends in is; as, collis silvestris, Cæs.

REM. 2. Volucer has um in the genitive plural.

§ 109. II. Adjectives of two terminations end in is for the masculine and feminine, and e for the neuter, except comparatives, which end in or and us.

Those in is, e, are thus declined:-

Mitis mild.

		Singular.		Plural.	
	M. & F.	N.		M. & F.	N.
N.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,	N.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,*
G.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĭs,	G.	mit'-i-um,*	mit'-i-ŭm,
D.	mi'-tī,	mi'-ti,	D.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	mi'-tem,	mi'-tĕ,	Ac.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
V.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,	V.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
Ab.	mi'-tī.	mi'-tī.	Ab.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

Ag'-ĭ-lis, active.	Dul'-cis, sweet.	In-col'-ŭ-mis, safe.
Brë'-vis, short.	For'-tis, brave.	Mi-rab'-I-lis, wonderful.
Cru-dë'-lis, cruel.	Gră'-vis, heavy.	Om'-nis, all.

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mītis.

Note. Several adjectives of this class have forms also in us, a, um. See § 116.

§ 110. (a.) All comparatives, except plus, more, are thus declined:—

^{*} Pronounced mish'-e-a, etc. See § 12.

Mitior,* milder.

Singular.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
G.	mit-i-ō´-rĭs,	mit-i-ō'-r s,
D.	mit-i-ō'-rī,	mit-i-ō'-rī,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rĕm,	mit'-i-ŭs,
V.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
Ab.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.

Plural.

Piurai.			
	M. & F.	N.	
N.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,	
G.	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,	
D.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-būs,	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bus,	
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,	
V.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,	
Ab.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bĭis.	mit-i-or'-i-bus.	

In like manner decline

	ALL MAKE MAKENINGS GOODIE	10
Al'-ti-or, higher.	Dul'-ci-or, sweeter.	Gra'-vi-or, heavier.
Au-da'-ci-or, bolder.	Fe-lic'-i-or, happier.	Pru-den'-ti-or, more pru-
Bre'-vi-or, shorter.	Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer.	dent.
Cru-de'-li-or, more cruel.	For'-ti-or, braver.	U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.

Plūs, more, is thus declined :-

S	ingular.			Plural.	
	N.		M. & F.		N.
N.	plus,	N.	plū'-rēs,		plū'-ră, rarely plu'-ri-ă.
G.	plū'-rĭs,	G.	plu'-ri-ŭm,		plu'-ri-ŭm,
D.	 ,	D.	plu'-ri-bus,		plu'-rī-bŭs,
Ac.	plus,	Ac.	plū'-rēs,		plū'-ră,
V.	<u></u> ,	V.			
Ab.	(plū'-rě, obs.)	Ab.	plu'-rĭ-bŭs.		plu'rĭ-bŭs.

So, but in the plural number only, complures, a great many.

§ 111. III. Other adjectives of the third declension have but one termination in the nominative singular for all genders. They all end in l, r, s, or x, and increase in the genitive.

They are thus declined :-

Fēlix, happy.

Singular.

		word wour .		
M.	& F.		N.	
N.	fe'-lix,		fe'-lix,	
G.	fe-lī'-cĭs,		fe-lī'-cĭs,	
D.	fe-lī'-cī,		fe-lī'-cī,	
Ac.	fe-lī'-cĕm,		fe'-lix,	
V.	fe'-lix,		fe'-lix,	
Ab.	fe-li'-cĕ, or	-cī.	fe-lī'-cĕ,	or -cī.

^{*} Pronounced mish'-e-or, etc. See § 12.

Plural.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,*
G.	fe-lic'-i-um,*	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,
D.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
V.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
Ab.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.

Præsens, present. Singular.

	M. & F.	N_{\bullet}
N.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
G.	præ-sen'-tis,	præ-sen'-tis,
D.	præ-sen'-tī,	præ-sen'-tī,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tem,	præ'-sens,
	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
Ab.	præ-sen'-tĕ. or-tī.	præ-sen'-tĕ, or -tī.

Plural.

N.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,†
G.	præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,	præ-sen'-ti-um,
D.	præ-sen'-ti-bus,	præ-sen'-tĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,
V.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-tĭ-ă,
Ab.	præ-sen'-ti-bŭs.	præ-sen'-ti-bus.

In like manner decline

711	inc manner accura	
Au'-dax, -ācis, bold. Com'-pos, -ŏtis, master of.	Par'-tĭ-ceps, -ĭpis, par- ticipant.	Sol'-lers, -tis, shrewd. Sos'-pes, -tis, safe.
Fě'-rox, -ōcis, fierce.	Præ'-pes, -ĕtis, swift. Prū'-dens, -tis, prudent.	Sup'-plex, -icis, sup- pliant.
In'-gens, -tis, huge.	Tra-dens, -cis, pracent.	puani.

REMARK. All present participles are declined like præsens; as, A'-mans. Mö'-nens. Rë'-gens. Ca'-pi-ens. Au'-di-ens.

Note. A few adjectives of one termination have redundant forms in us, a, um; see § 116.

Rules for the Oblique Cases of Adjectives of the

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 112. Most adjectives of the third declension form their genitive singular like nouns of the same termination.

The following may here be specified:-

1. Of those in es (cf. § 73) some have -étis; as, hèbes, perpes, præpes, and tères; —inquies and locuples have -ētis; —some have -itis; as, dives, sospes, and superstes; —some have -idis; as, deses, and rèses; —bipes, and tripes have -pédis; —pūbes has pubèris, and impūbes, impubèris and impūbis.

^{*} Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um, etc. See § 10, Exc., and § 7., 3, (b.)

[†] Pronounced pre-zen'-she-a, etc

2. Compos and impos have -ŏtis, and exos, exossis.—Exlex has exlégis, pernox has pernoctis (§ 78), præcox, præcocis, and rědux, redücis.—Calebs has calibis, (§ 77); intercus, intercutis, and větus, vetěris. Those in ceps which are compounds of caput, have -cipitis; as, anceps, præceps (§ 78, 1); but the compounds of ceps from capio have -ipis; as, particeps, participis.—Those in cors, compounds of cor, have -cordis; as, concors, concordis (§ 71, Exc. 2).—Mémor and immémor have -òris.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

- § 113. 1. Adjectives which have e in the nominative singular neuter have only i in the ablative.
- Exc. 1. The ablatives bimestre, caleste, and perenns are found in Ovid, and cognomine in Virgil.
- 2. Comparatives and participles in ns, when used as participles, especially in the ablative absolute, have rather e than i; but participal adjectives in ns have rather i than e.
 - 3. Adjectives of one termination have either e or i in the ablative.
 - Exc. 2. The following adjectives of one termination have only e in the abla-

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, dēses, discolor, hospes, impos, impūbes, juvenis, locuples, pauper, princeps, pūber or pūbes, senex, sospes, superstes, tricorpor, tricuspis, and tripes.

Exc. 3. The following adjectives of one termination have only i in the ablative:—

Anceps, concors, discors, hobes, immemor, iners, ingens, inops, memor, par, præceps, recens, repens, vigil, and most adjectives in x, especially those in plex.

- REM. 1. Inerte occurs in Ovid, recente in Ovid and Catullus, and præcipe in Ennius.
- REM. 2. Præsens, when used of things, makes the ablative in i; when used of persons, it has e.

NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, AND GENITIVE PLURAL.

- § 114. 1. The neuter of the nominative and accusative plural ends in ia, and the genitive plural of all genders in ium; but comparatives in or, with $v\check{e}tus$, old, and $\bar{u}ber$, fertile, have a, and um.
- 2. The accusative plural of masculine and feminine adjectives, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in īs or ēīs, instead of ēs. Cf. § 85, Exc. 1.
- Exc. 1. Those adjectives that have only e in the ablative singular, have um in the genitive plural.
- Exc. 2. Compounds of făcio, căpio, and of such nouns as make um in their genitive plural, with celer, compar, cicur, dives, mêmor, immemor, præpes, supplex, and vigil, make their genitive plural in um.
- Exc. 8. Dis, locuples, sons, and insons have either um or ium. The poets and the later prose writers sometimes form the genitive plural of other adjectives and of participles in ns, by syncope, in um, instead of ium; as, calestum, Virg. Ovid, etc.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

§ 115. Some adjectives are defective, others redundant.

DEFECTIVE ADJECTIVES.

1. (a.) Many adjectives denoting personal qualities or attributes want the neuter gender, unless when occasionally joined to a neuter substantive used figuratively. Such are the following:—

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, consors, degĕner, dīves, impos, impūbes, industrius, inops, insons, invītus, juvĕnis, locuples, mĕmor, pauper, particeps, princeps, pūber, or pūbes, rēdux, sĕnex, sons, sospes, superstes, supplex, tri-

corpor, vigil.

- (b.) Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; in the plural, they are feminine and neuter. Such verbals partake of the nature both of substantives and adjectives, and correspond to masculines in tor. See § 102, 6, (a.)
- 2. The following want the genitive plural, and are rarely used in the neuter gender:—

Concolor, deses, hebes, perpes, reses, teres, versicolor.

- 3. The names of months, which are properly adjectives, have only the masculine and feminine genders.
 - 4. Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frugi, temperate; $n\bar{e}quam$, worthless; $s\bar{a}t$ or $s\bar{a}tis$, sufficient; the plurals aliquot, $t\bar{o}t$. $qu\bar{o}t$, totidem, quotquot; and the cardinal numbers from quatu-or to centum inclusive, and also mille. Cf. § 118, 1, and 6, (b.)

5. The following adjectives are used only in certain cases: -

Bilicem, acc.; doubly-tissued. Cetera, ceterum, the rest, wants the nom. singmasc. Decemplicem, acc.: tenfold. Exspes, nom.; hopeless. Inquies, nom.; -tem, acc.; -tet, abl.; restless. Mactus, and macte, nom.; macte, acc.; honored; -macti, nom. plur. Necesse, and necessum, nom., acc.; necessary. Plus, nom., acc.; plūris, gen.; more; -pl. plūres, -a, nom. acc.; -ium gen.; ibus, dat., abl. Cf. § 110. Postera, posterum, coming after, wants the nom. sing. masc. Potis, nom. sing. and pl., all genders; able. Pote, nom. sing., for potest; possible. Septemplicis, gen.; -ce, abl.; seven-fold. Siremps, and sirempse, nom. and acc.; alike. Tantundem, nom. acc.; tantīdem, gen.; tantandem, acc.; so much. Trilicem, acc.; trebly-tissued; trilices, nom. and acc. pl.

REDUNDANT ADJECTIVES.

§ 116. The following adjectives are redundant in termination and declension. Those marked r are more rarely used.

Acclīvis, and -us, r, ascending.
Anxiliāris, and -ius, auxiliary.
Bijūgis, and -us, yoked two toyether.
Peclīvis, and -us, r, descending.
Exanimis, and -us, r, lifeless.
Hilāris, and -us, cheerful.
Imbecilis, r, and -us, weak.
Impūbes, and -is, r, -is or -ēris, not grown up.
Inermis, and -us, r, unarmed.
Infrēnis, and -us, unbridled.

Inquies, and -ētus, restless.
Joculāris, and -ius, r, laughable.
Multijūgis, r, and -us, yoked many together.
Opülens, and -lentus, rich.
Præcox, -cŏquis, and -cŏquus, early ripe.
Proclivis, and -us, r, sloping.
Quadrijūgis, and -us, yoked four together.

Semianimis, and -us, half alive

Semiermis, and -us, half armed. Semisomnis, and -us, r, half asleep. Singulāris, and -ius, single. Sublīmis, and -us, r, high. Unanīmis, r, and -us, unanīmous. Viŏlens, r, and -lentus, violent.

To these may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, saluber and -bris, celeber and -bris. Cf. § 108, R. 1.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

§ 117. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes—Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.

I. Cardinal numbers are those which simply denote the number of things, in answer to the question Quot? 'How many?' They are,

1.	Unus,	one.	I.
2.	Duo,	two.	Π̈́.
3.	Tres,	three.	III.
	Quātuor,	four.	IIII. or IV.
	Quinque,	five.	V.
6.	Sex,	six.	Ϋ́I.
	Septem,	seven.	Ϋ́IÏ.
	Octo,	eight	viii.
	Novem,	nine.	VIIII. or IX.
	Děcem,	ten.	X.
	Unděcim,	eleven.	ΧÏ.
12.	Duoděcim,	twelve.	XII.
	Treděcim,	thirteen.	XIII.
	Quatuorděcim,	fourteen.	XIIII. or XIV.
15.	Quinděcim,	fifteen.	XV.
	Seděcim, or sexděcim,	sixteen.	XVI.
17.	Septenděcim,	seventeen.	XVII.
	Octoděcim,	eighteen.	XVIII.
	Novenděcím,	nineteen.	XVIIII. or XIX.
	Viginti,	twenty.	XX.
	Viginti unus, or }	•	
	unus et viginti,	twenty-one.	XXI.
22.	Viginti duo, or	Annual Ann	*****
	duo et viginti, etc.,	twenty-two.	XXII.
30.	Trīginta,	thirty.	XXX.
40.	Quadraginta,	forty.	XXXX. or XL.
50.	Quinquaginta,	fifty.	L.
60.	Sexaginta,	sixty.	LX.
	Septuaginta,	seventy.	LXX.
	Octoginta, or octuaginta,		LXXX.
90.	Nonaginta,	ninety.	LXXXX. or XC.
	Centum,	a hundred.	C.
	Centum unus, or)	a hundred and one.	CI.
cen	tum et unus, etc., }	a nunarea ana one.	UI.
200.	Ducenti, -æ, a,	two hundred.	CC.
300.	Dŭcenti, -æ, a, Trěcenti, etc.,	three hundred.	CCC.
400.	Quadringenti,	four hundred.	CCCC, or CD.
500.	Quingenti,	five hundred,	IO, or D.
600.	Sexcenti,	six hundred.	IOC, or DC.
700.	Septingenti,	seven hundred.	IOCC, or DCC.
800.	Octingenti,	eight hundred.	IDCCC, or DCCC.
900.	Nongenti,	nine hundred.	IDCCCC, or DCCCC.
1000.	Mille,	a thousand.	CIO, or M.
2000.	Duo millia, or)	two thousand.	CIOCIO, or MM.
	bis mille,	ewo mousum.	Old Old, or Bibl.

5000.	Quinque millia, or a	five thousand.	IDD.
10000.	Decem millia, or decies mille.	ten thousand.	ccido.
50000.	Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mille,	fifty thousand.	iooo.
100000.	Centum millia, or) centies mille.	a hundred thousand.	ccciodo.

§ 118. 1. The first three cardinal numbers are declined; from four to a hundred inclusive they are indeclinable; those denoting hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus.

For the declension of unus and tres, see §§ 107 and 109.

Duo is thus declined :-

			1	Plural.			
		M.		F.		N.	
	N.	dū'-o,		du'-æ,		du'-0,	
	G.	du-ō'-rum,		du-ā'-rum		du-ō'-ru	m,
		du-ō'-bus,		du-ā'-bus		du-ō'-bu	S,
į	Ac.	du'-os, or du	′-0, /	du'-as,	'	du'-0,	
		du'-0,		du′-æ,		du'-0,	
	Ab.	du-ō'-bus.		du-ā'-bus.		du-ō'-bu	s.

REMARK 1. Duōrum, duārum, are often contracted into duûm, especially in compounds; as, duûmvir, and when joined with millium.—Ambo, both, which partakes of the nature of a numeral and of a pronoun, is declined like duo.

- 2. The cardinal numbers, except unus and mille, are used in the plural only.
- REM. 2. The plural of unus is used with nouns which have no singular, or whose singular has a different sense from the plural; as, una nuptiae, one marriage; una castra, one camp. It is used also with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, una vestimenta, one suit of clothes. So, also, when it takes the signification of "alone" or "the same"; as, uni Ubii, the Ubians alone; unis moribus vivere,—with the same manners.
- 3. (a.) Thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, and nineteen, are often expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes, united by et; thus, dēcem et tres, dēcem et növem, or, omitting et, dēcem novem. Octodēcim has no good authority. See infra, 4.
- (b.) From twenty to a hundred, the smaller number with et is put first, or the greater without et; as, unus et viginti, or viginti unus. Above one hundred, the greater precedes, with or without et; as, centum et unus, or centum unus; trecenti sexaginta sex, or trecenti et sexaginta sex. Et is never twice used, but the poets sometimes take ac, atque, or que, instead of et.
- 4. For eighteen, twenty-eight, etc., and for nineteen, twenty-nine, etc. (excepting sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight), a subtractive expression is more frequent than the additive form; as, duodeviginti, two from twenty; undeviginti, one from twenty; duodetriginta, undetriginta, etc. Neither un (unus) nor duo can be declined in these combinations. The additive forms for thirty-eight, etc. to ninety-eight, and for forty-nine, etc. to ninety-nine, except those for sixty-nine, seem not to occur.
- 5. (a.) Thousands are generally expressed by prefixing the smaller cardinal numbers to millia; as, diecem millia, ten thousand; ducenta millia, two hundred thousand. As there is in Latin no unit above mille, a thousand, the higher units of modern numeration are expressed by prefixing the numeral adverts to the

combination centêna millia; as, decies centêna millia, a million; centies centêna millia, ten millions. In such combinations centêna millia is sometimes omitted; as, decies, scil. centêna millia.

- (b.) The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing smaller numbers; as, bis sex for duodecin; bis centum for ducenti, etc.
 - 6. Mille is used either as a substantive or as an adjective.
- (a.) When taken substantively, it is indeclinable in the singular number, and, in the plural, has millia, millium, millibus, etc.; as, mille hominum, a thousand men; duo millia hominum, two thousand men, etc. When mille is a substantive, the things numbered are put in the genitive, as in the preceding examples, unless a declined numeral comes between; as, habuit tria millia trecentos milites.
- (b.) As an adjective, mille is plural only, and indeclinable: as, mille homines a thousand men; cum bis mille hominibus, with two thousand men.
- 7. Capitals were used by the Romans to mark numbers. The letters employed for this purpose were C. I. L. V. X., which are, therefore, called Numeral Letters. I. denotes one; V. five; X. ten; L. fifty; and C. a hundred. By the various combinations of these five letters, all the different numbers are expressed.
- (a.) The repetition of a numeral letter repeats its value. Thus, II. signifies two; III. three; XX. twenty; XXX. thirty; CC. two hundred, etc. But V. and L. are never repeated.
- (b.) When a letter of a less value is placed before a letter of a greater value, the less takes away its value from the greater; but being placed after, it adds its value to the greater; thus,

 IV. Four.
 V. Five.
 VI. Six.

 IX. Nine.
 X. Ten.
 XI. Eleven.

 XL. Forty.
 L. Fifty.
 LX. Sixty.

XC. Ninety. C. A hundred. CX. A hundred and ten.

(c.) A thousand was marked thus, CIO, which, in later times, was contracted into M. Five hundred is marked thus, IO, or, by contraction, D.

(d.) The annexing of the apostrophus or inverted C(O) to IO makes its value ten times greater; thus, IOO marks five thousand; and IOOO, fifty thousand.

- (e.) The prefixing of C, together with the annexing of O, to the number CIO, makes its value ten times greater; thus, CCIOO denotes ten thousand; and CCCIOOO, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a larger number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIOOO, CCCIOOO, signified two hundred thousand, etc.
- (f.) We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus, $\overline{\text{III}}$ denotes three thousand; $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$, ten thousand.
- § 119. II. Ordinal numbers are such as denote order or rank, and answer to the question, Quotus? Which of the numbers? They all end in us, and are declined like bonus; as, primus, first; secundus, second.
- III. Distributive numbers are those which indicate an equal division among several persons or things, and answer to the question, Quotēni? How many apiece? as, singŭli, one by one, or, one to each; bīni, two by two, or two to each, etc. They are always used in the plural, and are declined like the plural of bŏnus, except that they usually have ûm instead of ōrum in the genitive plural. Cf. § 105, R. 4.

he follow as table contains the ordinal and distributive numbers, and the corresponding umeral adverbs, which answer to the question, Quoties? How many times?—

Distributive. Numeral Adverbs. Ordinal. 1. Primus, first. Singuli, one by one. Sěmel, once. 2. Secundus, second. Bīni, two by two. Bis, twice. 3. Tertius, third. Terni, or trīni. Ter, thrice. 4. Quartus, fourth. Quaterni. Quater, four times. Quini. 5. Quintus, fifth. Quinquies. Sexies. 6. Sextus, sixth. Sēni. 7. Septimus, seventh. Septēni. Septies. Octoni. 8. Octāvus, eighth. Octies. 9. Novēni. Nonus, ninth. Novies. 10. Děcimus, tenth, etc. Dēni. Děcies. Undecies. 11. Undecimus. Undeni. 12. Duodecimus. Duodēni. Duodecies. 13. Tertius decimus. Terni dēni. Terdecies. Quartus decimus. Quatuordecies. 14. Quaterni deni. Quindecies. 15. Quintus decimus. Quīni dēni. 16. Sextus decimus. Sēni dēni. Sedecies. 17. Septimus decimus. Septēni dēni. Decies et septies. 18. Octāvus decimus. Octoni deni. Duodevicies. Nonus decimus. 19. Novēni dēni. Undevicies. Vīcēsimus, or 20. Vīcies. Vīcēni. vigesimus. Vicesimus primus. 21. Vicēni singŭli. Semel et vicies. 22. Vicesimus secundus. Vicēni bīni, etc. Bis et vicies, etc. Trīcesimus, or 30. Trīcēni. Trīcies. trigesimus. 40. Quadragies. Quādrāgesimus. Quadragēni. 50. Quinquagesimus. Quinquageni. Quinquagies. 60. Sexagēni. Sexagies. Sexagesimus. 70. Septuagesimus. Septuagēni. Septuagies. 89. Octogesimus. Octogeni. Octogies. 90. Nonagesimus. Nonagēni. Nonagies. 100. Centesimus. Centeni. Centies. 200. Ducenties. Dűcentesímus. Ducēni. Trecenties, or 300. Trěcentesimus. Trecēni, or trecentēni. tricenties. Quadringēni, or 400. Quadringentesimus. Quadringenties. quadringentēni. Quingēni. 500. Quingentesimus. Quingenties. Sexcenties. 600. Sexcentesimus. Sexceni, or sexcenteni. 700. Septingentesimus. Septingenties. Septingēni. 800. Octingentesimus. Octingeni. Octingenties. 900. Nongentesimus. Nongēni. Noningenties. Milleni, or 1000. Millesimus. Millies. singŭla millia. Bis millēni, or (2000. Bis millesimus. Bis millies.

bīna millia. § 120. 1. In the ordinals, instead of primus, prior is used, if only two are spoken of. Alter is often used for secundus.

2. (a.) From thirteenth to nineteenth, the smaller number is usually put first, without et; as, tertius decimus, but sometimes the greater with or without

(b.) Twenty-first, thirty-first, etc., are often expressed by unus et vicesimus, unus et vicesimus, etc., one and twentieth, etc.; and twenty-second, etc., by duo, or alter et vicesimus, etc., in which duo is not changed. In the other companion of the control o pound numbers, the larger precedes without et, or the smaller with et; as, vicesimus quartus, or quartus et vicesimus.

- (c.) For eighteenth, etc., to fifty-eighth, and for nineteenth, the subtractive forms, duodevicesimus, etc., and undevicesimus, etc., are often used.
- 3. In the distributives, eighteen, thirty-eight, forty-eight, and fineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by the subtractives duodevicēni, etc., undevicēni, etc.
- 4. (a.) Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicula, two darts. Virg. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bina nuptia, two weddings.
- (b.) The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of multiplicatives; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septenus.
- 5. In the numeral adverbs, for the intermediate numbers 21, 22, etc., the larger number also may be put first, either with or without et; and for twenty-eight times and thirty-nine times, duodetricies and undequadragies are found.

§ 121. To the preceding classes may be added the following:-

1. Multiplicatives, which denote how many fold, in answer to the question, quotuplex? They all end in plex, and are declined like $f \bar{e} lix$; as,

Simplex, single.
Duplex, twofold, or double.
Triplex, threefold.
Quadruplex, fourfold.

Quincuplex, fivefold. Septemplex, sevenfold. Decemplex, tenfold. Centuplex, a hundred fold.

- 2. Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than another; as, dŭplus, a, um, twice as great; so triplus, quadruplus, octuplus, decuplus. They are generally found only in the neuter.
- 3. Temporals, which denote time; as, bimus, a, um, two years old; so trimus, quadrimus, etc. Also, biennis, lasting two years, biennial; so quadriennis, quinquennis, etc. So also, bimestris, of two months' continuance; trimestris, etc., biduus, etc. To these may be added certain nouns, compounds of annus and dies with the cardinal numbers; as, biennium, triennium, etc., a period of two, etc. years; biduum, triduum, etc., a period of two, etc. days.
- 4. Adjectives in arius, derived from the distributives, and denoting of how many equal parts or units a thing consists; as, binarius, of two parts; ternarius, etc.
- 5. Interrogatives; as, quot, how many? quotus, of what number? quoteni, how many each? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are tot, totidem, so many; aliquot, some; which, with quot, are indeclinable; and the adverbs, toties, so often; aliquoties, several times.
- 6. Fractional expressions, which denote the parts of a thing. These are expressed in Latin by pars with dimidia, tertia, quarta, etc. Thus, \(\frac{1}{2}\), dimidia pars; \(\frac{1}{2}\), tertia pars, etc. When the number of parts into which a thing is divided exceeds by one only the parts mentioned, as in \(\frac{2}{3}\), \(\frac{2}{3}\), etc. the fraction is expressed simply by dux, tres, etc. partes, denoting two out of three, three out of four, etc.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 122. 1. Adjectives may be divided into two classes—those which denote a variable, and those which denote an invariable, quality or limitation.

Thus, bönus, good, altus, high, and opācus, dark, denote variable attributes; but aneus, brazen, triplex, threefold, and diurnus, daily, do not admit of different degrees in their signification.

2. The comparison of an adjective is the expression of its quality in different degrees.

3. The three degrees of comparison—the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

4. The positive simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, altus, high; mītis, mild.

5. The comparative denotes that a quality belongs to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, altior, higher; mittor, milder.

6. The superlative denotes that a quality belongs to one of several objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to any of the rest; as, altissimus, highest; mitissimus, mildest.

REM 1. Sometimes also the comparative denotes that a quality, at different times or in other circumstances, belongs in different degrees to the same object; as, est sapientior quam fuit, he is wiser than he was.

Rem. 2. The comparative sometimes expresses the proportion between two qualities of the same object; as, est doction quam sapiention, he is more learned than wise; that is, his learning is greater than his wisdom.

REM. 3. The comparative is also used elliptically instead of our 'too' or 'rather'; as, vivit liberius, he lives too freely, or, rather freely. Cf. § 256, R. 9.

REM. 4. The superlative, like the positive with per, (cf. § 127, 2), often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with the same quality in other objects; as, amicus carissimus, a very dear friend.

§ 123. 1. Degrees of a quality inferior to the positive may be denoted by the adverbs minus, less; minime, least, prefixed to the positive; as, jucundus, pleasant; minus jucundus, less pleasant; minime jucundus, least pleasant.

2. A small degree of a quality is indicated by sub prefixed to the positive; as, amārus, bitter; subamārus, bitterish, or, somewhat bitter.

3. An equal degree of a quality may be denoted by tam followed by quam, eque followed by ac, sic followed by ut, etc.; as, hêbes, eque ac pécus, as stupid as a brute.

§ 124. 1. The comparative and superlative in Latin, as in English, are denoted either by peculiar terminations, or by certain adverbs prefixed to the positive. Cf. § 127, 1.

2. The terminational comparative ends in ior, ior, ius; the terminational superlative in issimus, issima, issimum.

3. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest.

mitis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest.
felix, (gen. felicis.) felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest.

Arc'-tus, strait. Cā'-rus, dear. Doc'-tus, learned. In like manner compare
Cru-dē'-lis, cruel.
Fer'-tī-lis, fertile.
Lē'-vis, light.

In'-ers, (gen.-tis), sluggish.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 125. 1. Adjectives in *er* form their superlative by adding *rimus* to that termination; as, *ācer*, active; gen. *acr*is; comparative, *acr*ior; superlative, *acer*rimus.

In like manner, pauper, pauperrimus. Vétus has a similar inventere veter-rimus, from the old collateral form veter.

2. Six adjectives in *lis* form their superlative by adding *limus* to the root:—

Facilis, facilior, facillimus, easy. Difficilis, difficilior, difficillimus, difficult. gracillimus, stender. Gracilis, gracilior, Humilis, humilior, humillimus, low. similior. like. Similis. simillimus, Dissimilis, dissimilior, dissimillimus, unlike.

Imbecillus or imbecillis, weak, has two forms, imbecillissimus and imbecillimus.

3. (a.) Five adjectives in ficus (from facio) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ens:—

Beneficus, beneficentior, beneficentissimus, beneficent. honorificentissimus, Honorificus, honorificentior, honorable. Magnificus, magnificentior, magnificentissimus, splendid. Munificus, munificentior, munificentissimus, liberal. maleficentissimus, hurtful. Maleficus.

(b.) Adjectives in dicens and volens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and volus are more common; as,

Maledicens or dieus, maledicentior, maledicentissimus, slanderous. Benevõlens, or -võlus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, benevolent.

4. These five have regular comparatives, but irregular superlatives:—

dexterior, Dexter, dextimus, right. Extera, (fem.) exterior, extrēmus, or extimus, outward. hind. Postera, (fem.) posterior, postrēmus, or postumus, Inferus, inferior, infimus, or imus, below. suprēmus, or summus, Superus, superior,

REMARK 1. The nominative singular of postera does not occur in the masculine, and that of extera wants good authority.

5. The following are very irregular in comparison :-

good, Bŏnus, melior. optimus, better. best. pējor, bad, Mălus, pessimus. worse. worst. mājor, maximus, greater, greatest. Magnus. great, little, less, Parvus. minor. minimus. least. Multus, plurimus, plurima. Multa. much. more. most. plus,* Multum. plurimum, nequior, worthless, etc. Nequam, nequissimus, Frūgi, frugalior, frugalissimus, frugal, etc.

REM. 2. All these, except magnus, whose regular forms are contracted, either form their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives, or take them from other words of similar signification.

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

§ 126. 1. Seven adjectives want the positive:

Citerior, citimus, nearer. Deterior, deterrimus, worse. Interior, intimus, inner. Ocior, ocissimus, swifter. Prior, prīmus, former. Propior, proximus, nearer. Ulterior, ultimus, farther.

2. Eight want the terminational comparative:-

Consultus, consultissimus, skilful. Inclutus, inclutissimus, renowned. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Invitus, invitissimus, unwilling. Meritus, meritissimus, (very rare,) deserving. Par, parissīmus, (very rare), equal. Persuāsus, persuasissīmum (neuter), persuaded. Sācer, sacerrīmus, sacred.

3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative:-

Aprīcus, apricissīmus, sunny. Bellus, bellissīmus, fine. Cōmis, comissīmus, courteous. Diversus, diversissīmus, different. Falsus, falsissīmus, false. Fīdus, fidissīmus, faithful. Novus, novissīmus, new. Vētus, veterrīmus, old.

4. The following want the terminational superlative:-

Adolescens, adolescentior, young. Agrestis, agrestior, rustic. Alacer, alacrior, active. Ater, atrior, black.
Cæcus, cæcior, blind.
Dēses, desidior, inactive.
Diuturius, diuturnior, lasting.
Infinitus, infinitior, unlimited.
Ingens, ingentior, great.
Jejūnus, jejunior, fasting.
Juvēnis, junior, young.
Licens, licentior, unrestrained.
Longinquus, longinquior, distant.
Opīnus, opimior, rich.

REMARK 1. The superlative of juvčnis and adolescens is supplied by minimus nātu, youngest; and that of sēnex by maximus nātu, oldest. The comparatives minor nātu and mājor nātu sometimes also occur.

REM. 2. Most adjectives also in īlis, ilis, ālis, and bilis, have no terminational

superlative.

- 5. Many variable adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,
- (a.) Adjectives in bundus, imus, imus (except divinus), orus, most in ivus, and in us pure (except -quus.) Yet arduus, assiduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pius, strenuus, and vacuus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping i, noxior, innoxior, sobrior.
- (b.) The following—almus, calvus, cānus, cīcur, claudus, degener, delirus, dispar, egenus, impar, impiger, invidus, licer, memor, mīrus, nūdus, præcox, præditus, rūdis, salvus, sospes, superstes, vulgāris, and some others.
- § 127. 1. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most; as, idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.
- 2. Various degrees of a quality above the positive are expressed by admödum, aliquanto, apprime, bene, imprimis, multum, oppido, perquam, and valde, and also by per compounded with the positive; as, difficilis, difficult; perdifficilis, very difficult. To a few adjectives præ is in like manner prefixed; as, prædūrus, very hard.
- 3. The force of the comparative is increased by prefixing etiam, even, still, or yet; and that of both comparative and superlative, by

prefixing longe or multo, much, far; as, longe nobilissimus; longe melior, iter multo facilius; multo maxima pars.

- 4. Vel, 'even', and quam, with or without possum, 'as much as possible', before the superlative, render it more emphatic; as, Cicëro vel optimus oratōrum Romanōrum. Quam maximum potest militum numërum colligit; quam doctissimus, extremely learned; quam celerrime, as speedily as possible.
- NOTE 1. Instead of quam with possum, quantus is sometimes used, in the same case as the superlative; as, Quantis maximis potuit itineribus contendit.
- Note 2. Unus, with or without omnium, is sometimes added to superlatives to increase their force; as, Hoc ego uno omnium plurimum utor. Cic. Urbem unam mihi amicissimam declināvi, Id. It is used in like manner with excello.
- 5. All adjectives whose signification admits of different degrees, if they have no terminational comparison, may be compared by means of adverbs.
- 6. Instead of the comparative and superlative degrees, the positive with the prepositions præ, ante, præter, or supra, is sometimes used; as, præ nobis beātus, happier than we. Cic. Ante alias pulchritudine insignis, most beautiful. Liv. Sometimes the preposition is used in connection with the superlative; as, Ante alios pulcherrimus omnes. Virg.
- 7. Among adjectives which denote an invariable quality or limitation, and which, therefore, cannot be compared, are those denoting matter, time, number, possession, country, part, interrogation; also compounds of jügum, somnus, gēro, and fēro, and many others.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

- § 128. Derivative adjectives are formed chiefly from nouns, from other adjectives, and from verbs.
- I. Those derived from nouns and adjectives are called denominatives. The following are the principal classes:—
- 1. (a.) The termination $\check{e}us$, added to the root, denotes the material of which a thing is made, and sometimes similarity; as, aureus, golden; argenteus, of silver; ligneus, wooden; vitreus, of glass; virgineus, maideally; from aurum, argentum, etc. See \S 9, Rem. 3.
- (b.) Some adjectives of this kind have a double form in neus and nus; as, eburneus and eburnus, of ivory.
- (c.) The termination inus has the same meaning; as, adamantinus, of adamant; cedrinus, of cedar; from adămas and cedrus. So, also, ēnus; as, terrēnus, of earth, from terra.
- (d.) The termination ēūs or īus (Greek uos), and also icus, belong to adjectives formed from Greek names of men, and denote 'of' or 'pertaining to'; as, Achlileus, Sophocleus, Aristotelius, Platonicus; Pythagorēus and Pythagoricus; Homerius and Homericus. Names in ias make adjectives in iācus; as, Archias, Archicus. Sometimes, though rarely in the purest Latin authors, adjectives in ēus or īus are formed from Latin names; as, Marcellia or -ēa, a festival in honor of the Marcelli.
- 2. (a.) The terminations ālis, āris, ārius, ilis, atilis, icius, icus, ius, čūs, and inus, denote 'belonging' 'pertaining,' or 'relating to'; as, capitālis, relating to the life; from capital.

So comitiālis, regālis; Apollināris, consulāris, populāris; argentarius; civīlis. hostilis, juvenilis; aquatilis, fluviatilis; tribunicius, patricius; bellicus, civicus, Germanīcus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius; Hectoreus; canīnus, equinus, ferīnus, masculīnus; from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, populus, argentum, cīvis, etc.

(b.) The termination ilis sometimes expresses character; as, hostilis, hostile; puerilis, boyish; from hostis and puer.

(c.) The termination inus belongs especially to derivatives from names of

animals, and other living beings.

- 3. The termination arius, as a substantive, scil. fuber, etc., generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentum;—coriarius, statuarius; from corium and statua. When added to numeral adjectives, it denotes how many equal parts a thing contains. See § 121, 4.
- 4. The terminations ōsus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animōsus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to fraud; from animus and fraus. So lapidosus, vinosus, portuosus, turbulentus, sanguinolentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly u, but sometimes δ .

Note.—Adjectives of this class are called amplificatives. See § 104, 12.

- 5. From adjectives are formed diminutives in ŭlus, cŭlus, etc., in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulcicŭlus, sweetish; from dulcis. So lentŭlus, misellus, parvŭlus, etc. See § 100, 3, and § 104, 11. Diminutives are sometimes formed from comparatives; as, majuscülus, duriuscülus, somewhat great, somewhat great is the same of the comparatives. what hard, etc. Double diminutives are formed from paucus, viz pauxillus and pauxillulus; and from bonus, (benus) are formed bellus and bellulus.
- 6. (a.) From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived patrial adjectives in ensis, inus, as, and anus, denoting of or belonging to such

(b.) Thus from Cannæ is formed Cannensis; from Sulmo, Sulmonensis. In like manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis. But Athēnæ makes Atheniensis; and some Greek towns in īa and ēa drop i and e in their

adjectives; as, Antiochensis, Nicomedensis.

(c.) Those in inus are formed from names of places ending in ia and ium; as, Aricia, Aricinus; Caudium, Caudinus; Capitolium, Capitolinus; Latium, Latinus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in īnus; as, Tarentum, Tarentīnus.

(d.) Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in

a; as, Arpīnum, Arpīnas; Capēna, Capēnas.
(e.) Those in ānus are formed from names of towns of the first declension. or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albānus; Roma, Romānus; Cūmæ, Cumānus; Thēbæ, Thebānus; also from some of the second declension; as, Tusculum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus:—fons, fontānus; mons, montānus; urbs, urbānus: oppidum, oppidānus.

(f.) Adjectives with the terminations anus, ianus, and inus are formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullānus; Tullius, Tulliānus; Jugurtha, Jugurthīnus.
(g.) Greek names of towns in pölis form patrial adjectives in politānus; as,

- Neapölis, Neapolitānus.
- (h.) Greek names of towns generally form patrials in ius; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedamon, Lacedamonius; -but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissæus; Smyrna, Smyrnæus.
- (i.) From many patrials; as, Britannus, Gallus, Afer, Persa, Arabs, etc., adjectives are formed in icus and ins; as, Britannicus, Gallicus, Africus, Persicus, Arabicus; so Syrus, Syrius; Thrax, Thracius.
- 7. A large class of derivative adjectives, though formed from nouns, have the terminations of perfect participles. They generally signify wearing or furnished with; as,

alātus, winged; barbātus, bearded; galeātus, helmeted; aurītus, long-eared; turritus, turreted; cornutus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, auris, etc.

- 8. The termination aneus, annexed to the root of an adjective or participle in us, expresses a resemblance to the quality denoted by the primitive; as, supervacaneus, of a superfluous nature.
- § 129. II. Adjectives derived from verbs are called *verbal* adjectives. Such are the following classes:—
- 1. The termination bundus, added to the first root of the verb, with a connecting vowel, which is commonly that of the verb, (see § 150, 5,) has the general meaning of the present participle; as,

errābundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, equivalent to errans, moriens.

(a.) In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as, gratulābundus, full of congratulations; lacrimābundus, weeping profusely.

(b.) Most verbals in bundus are from verbs of the first conjugation, a few from those of the third, and but one from the second and fourth respectively, viz. pudibundus and lascivibundus.

- (c.) Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense; as, rubĭcundus, verēcundus, from rubeo and vereor.
- 2. The termination *idus*, added to the root, especially of neuter verbs, denotes the quality or state expressed by the verb; as,

algidus, cold; calidus, warm; madidus, moist; rapidus, rapid; from algeo, caleo, madeo, rapio.

3. The termination *uus*, also, denotes the quality expressed by the verb; and adjectives in *uus* derived from active verbs take a passive meaning; as,

congruus, agreeing, from congruo; so, assiduus, nocuus, innocuus:—irriguus, well watered; conspicuus, visible; from irrigo, conspicio.

- 4. (a.) The terminations ilis and bilis, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denote passively, capability, or desert; as, amabilis, worthy to be loved; credibilis, deserving credit; placabilis, easy to be appeased; agilis, active; ductilis, ductile; from āmo, crēdo, plāco; āgo, dūco. They are rarely active; as, horribilis, terribilis; aer per cuncta meabilis. Plin.
- (b.) In adjectives of these forms, derived from verbs of the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is i; sometimes, also, in those from verbs of the second conjugation, in these and other forms, i is used instead of e; as, horribilis, terribilis, from horreo and terreo.
- (c.) These terminations, with the connecting vowel, are sometimes added to the third root; as, flexilis, flexibilis; coctilis, coctilis, from flecto (flex-), etc.
- 5. The termination icius or itius, added to the third root of the verb, has a passive sense; as, fictitius, feigned; conductitius, to be hired; from fingo (fict-), etc.
- 6. The termination ax, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as,

audax, audacious; loquax, talkative; rapax rapacious; from audeo. loquor, rapio.

7. The termination *īvus*, annexed to the third root of a verb, denotes fitness or ability to produce the action expressed by the verb; as, *disjunctīvus*, disjunctive, from *disjungo*.

- 8. Verbals in tor and trix, (see § 102, 6, (a.), are often used as adjectives, especially in poetry; as, victor exercitus, victrīces litēræ. In the plural they become adjectives of three terminations; as, victores, victrīces, victrīcia. So also hospes, especially by the later poets, is used as an adjective, having hospita in the feminie singular and also in the neuter plural.
- § 130. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called participial adjectives; as, amans, fond of; doctus, learned.
- IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs; as, crastinus, of to-morrow; hodiernus, of this day; from cras and hodie.
- V. Some adjectives are derived from prepositions; as, contrarius, contrary, from contra; postërus, subsequent, from post.

COMPOSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 131. Compound adjectives are formed variously:

1. Of two nouns; as, capripes, goat-footed—of caper and pes; ignicomus, having fiery hair—of ignis and coma.

Note.—See, respecting the connecting short i, in case the first part of the compound is a noun or an adjective, § 103, Rem. 1.

- 2. Of a noun and an adjective; as, noctivagus, wandering in the night—of now and vagus. So lucifagax, shunning the light—of lux and fugax.
- 3. Of a noun and a verb; as, corniger, bearing horns—of cornu and gero; letifer, bringing death—of letum and fero. So carnivorus, causidicus, ignivomus, lucifugus, particeps.
- 4. Of an adjective and a noun; as, æquævus, of the same age—of æquus and ævum; celeripes, swift-footed—of celer and pes. So centimanus, decennis, magnanimus, miscricors, unanimis.
- 5. Of two adjectives; as, centumgeminus, a hundred-fold; multicăvus, having many cavities; quintusdecimus, the fifteenth.
- 6. Of an adjective and a verb; as, brevilóquens, speaking briefly—of brevis and lóquor; magnificus, magnificent—of magnus and fácio.
 - 7. Of an adjective and a termination; as, qualiscumque, quotcumque, uterque.
 - 8. Of an adverb and a noun; as, bicorpor, two-bodied—of bis and corpus.
- 9. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, maledicax, slanderous—of măle and dicax. So antemeridiānus, before mid-day.
- 10. Of an adverb and a verb; as, beneficus, beneficent—of bene and facio; malevolus, malevolent—of male and volo.
- 11. Of a preposition and a noun; as, āmens, mad—of a and mens. So consors, decolor, deformis, implūmis, inermis.
- 12. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, concave, infidus, unfaithful. So improvidus, percarus, prædives, subalbidus.
- 13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, uninterrupted—of con and teneo; insciens, ignorant—of in and scio. So præcipuus, promiscuus, substillus, superstes.

REMARK. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to the consonant which follows it; as, imprüdens—of in and prüdens.—Sew § 196; and cf. § 103, R. 2.

PRONOUNS.

- § 132. 1. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun.
 - 2. There are eighteen simple pronouns:-

Ego, I. Hic, this, the latter. Suus, his, hers, its, etc. Cujus? whose? Tu, thou. Is, that or he. Quis? who? Sui, of himself, etc. Noster, our. Ille, that, the former. Vester, your. Qui, who. Ipse, himself. Meus, my. Nostras, of our country. Cujas? of what country? Iste, that, that of yours. Tuus, thy.

- 3. Ego, tu, and sui, and commonly also quis and its compounds, are substantives: the other pronouns, both simple and compound, are adjectives, but are often by ellipsis used as substantives.
- 4. Ego, tu, and sui are commonly called personal pronouns. They are a species of appellatives (§ 26, 3,) of general application. Ego is used by a speaker to designate himself; tu, to designate the person whom he addresses. Hence ego is of the first person, tu of the second. (§ 35, 2.) Sui is of the third person, and has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. The oblique cases of ego and tu are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person.
- 5. The remaining pronouns, except quis and its compounds, are adjectives, as they serve to limit the meaning of substantives; and they are pronouns, because, like substantive pronouns, they may designate any object in certain situations or circumstances.
- 6. Meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cujus, have the same extent of signification as the pronouns from which they are derived, and are equivalent to the genitive cases of their primitives.
- 7. Pronouns, like substantives and adjectives, are declined; but most of them want the vocative. Sui, from the nature of its signification, wants also the nominative in both numbers.
- 8. The substantive pronouns take the gender of the objects which they denote. The adjective pronouns, like adjectives, have three genders.

SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 133. The substantive pronouns are thus declined:

Singular.

N. ĕ'-gŏ, I.	tū, thou.	
G. me'-ī, of me.	tu'-ī, of thee.	{ su'-ī, of himself, her- self, itself.
D. mĭ'-hī, to me. Ac. mē, me.	tĭb'-ĭ,* to thee.	sĭb'-ĭ,* to himself, etc. sē, himself, etc.
V. Ab. mē, with me.	$egin{array}{l} tar{u},\ O\ thou. \ \ tar{e},\ with\ thee. \end{array}$	sē, with himself, etc.

^{*} See § 19, 1, Exc.

Plural.

N. nos, we.	vōs, ye or you.	
$G. \begin{Bmatrix} \text{nos'-trum} \\ \text{or nos'-tri}, \end{Bmatrix} \text{of us.}$	ves'-trum or of you.	su'-ī, of themselves.
D =='h=-	ves -tri,	v1/* , ,7 7 .
D. no'-bis, to us.	võ'-bīs, to you.	sib'-i, to themselves.
Ac. nos, us.	vos, you.	sē, themselves.
47 7/37 17	vos, O ye or you.	- 11 1
Ab. no'-bis, with us.	vo'-bis, with you.	sē, with themselves.

REMARK 1. $M\bar{e}$ and $m\bar{i}$ are ancient forms for mihi. So min' for mihine, Pers. 1, 2.

REM. 2. The syllable met is sometimes annexed to the substantive pronouns, in an intensive sense, either with or without ipse; as, egömet, I myself; mihimet ipsi, for myself. It is not annexed, however, to the genitives plural, not to tu in the nominative or vocative. In these cases of tu, tūtē or tutēmet is used. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated forms mēmē and tētē in the singular, and sēsē in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, intensive, med and ted, for me and te, and mis and tis for mei and tui, occur in the comic writers.

- 3. Nostrum and vestrum are contracted from nostrōrum, nostrōrum, and vestrorum, vestrōrum. Respecting the difference in the use of nostrum and nostri, vestrum and vestri, see § 212, R. 2, N. 2.
- 4. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mēcum, nobiscum, etc. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 134. [†]Adjective pronouns may be divided into the following classes:—demonstrative, intensive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, possessive, and patrial.

Note. Some pronouns belong to two of these classes.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are such as specify what object is meant.

They are ille, iste, hic, and is, and their compounds, and are thus declined:—

	Singular.			Plural.	
Mr.	F.	N_{ullet}	M.	F.	N.
N. il'-lĕ, G. il-lī'-us,* D. il'-lī, Ac. il'-lum, V. il'-lĕ, Ab. il'-lō.	il'-lă, il-lī'-us, il'-lī, il'-lam, il'-lă, il'-lā.	il'-lŭd, il-lĭ'-us, il'-lī, il'-lŭd, il'-lŭd, il'-lō.	il'-lī, il-lō'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lōs, il'-lī, il'-līs.	il'-læ, il-lā'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lās, il'-læ, il'-līs.	il'-lă, il-lō'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lă, il'-lă, il'-līs.

Iste is declined like ille.

	Singular	r.		Plural.	
M.	F_{\bullet}	N.	M.	F_{ullet}	N.
N. hie,	hæc,	hŏc,	hī,	hæ,	hæc,
G. hū'-jŭs,	hū'-jŭs,	hū'-jŭs,	hō'-rum,	hā'-rum,	hō'-rum,
D. huic*,	huic,	huic,	hīs,	hīs,	hīs,
Ac. hunc,	hanc,	hŏe,	hōs,	hās,	hæc,
V. hře,	hæc,	hŏe,	hī,	hæ,	hæc,
Ab. hōc.	hāc.	hōc.	hīs.	hīs.	hīs.
,	Singular.			Plural.	
М.	F.	N.	M.	F_*	N.
N. ĭs,	e'-ă,	ĭd,	i'-ī,	e'-æ,	e'-ă,
$G. \bar{e}'-j\check{u}s,$	ē'-jŭs,	ē'-jŭs,	e-ō'-rum,	e-ā'rum,	e-ō'-rum,
D. e'-1,	e'-ī,	e'-ī,	i'-īs or e'-īs,	i'-īs or e'-īs,	i'-īs or e'-īs,
Ac. e'-um,	e'-am,	ĭd,	e'-ōs,	e'-ās,	e'-ă,
V. —					
<i>∆b</i> . e′-ō.	e'-ā.	e'-ō.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-īs or e'-īs.

REMARK 1. Instead of ille, ollus was anciently used; whence olli masc. plur. in Virgil. Illæ fem., for illius and illi, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also in Cato, hæ for huic fem.; hice for hi, and hæc for hæ in Plautus and Terence. Im for eum, is found in the Twelve Tables; eii for ei, and ibus and ibus for iis, in Plautus; eæ, fem., for ei, and eābus for iis, in Cato.

REM. 2. From ecce, lo! with ille, iste, and is, are formed, in colloquial language, nom., ecca; eccilla, eccillud; acc. sing., eccum, eccam; eccillum (by syncope ellum), eccillam; eccistam; acc. plur., eccos, ecca.

REM. 3. Istic and illic are compounded of iste hic, and ille hic; or, as some say, of iste ce, and ille ce. The former sometimes retains the aspirate, as isthic. They are more emphatic than ille and iste.

Istic is thus declined:-

-	Sing	ular.		Plure	ıl.	
М.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
N. is'-tīc,	is'-tæc,	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	N.		is'-tæc	
Ac. is'-tunc,	is'-tanc,	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	Ac.			is'-tæc.

Illic is declined in the same manner.

REM. 4. Ce, intensive, is sometimes added to the several cases of hic, and rarely to some cases of the other demonstrative pronouns; as, hujusce, huncce, hance, hocce, hice, hace or hac, horunc, harumce, harunce, or harunc, hosce, hasce, hisce; illiusce, illace, illosce, illace, ilsice; istace, istisce; ejusce, iisce. When ne, interrogative, is also annexed, ce becomes ci; as, haccine, hoscine, hiscine; istuccine, istaccine, istoscine; illiccine, illanccine.

REM. 5. Módi, the genitive of módus, annexed to the genitive singular of demonstrative and relative pronouns, imparts to them the signification of adjectives of quality; as, hujusmódi or hujuscemódi, like talis, of this sort, such; illiusmódi and istiusmódi, of that sort; cujusmódi, of what sort, like qualis; cu-

juscemődi, cujusquemődi, cujusmodicumque, of what kind soever; cujusdammődi, of some kind. So also istimődi, cuimődi and cuicuimődi, instead of istiusmődi, cujusmódi, etc.

REM. 6. The suffix dem is annexed to is, forming idem, "the same," which is thus declined:—

Singular.

M. Y-dem, G. e-jus'-dem, D. e-T'-dem, Ac. e-un'-dem, Vō'-dem.	e'-ă-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-l'-dem, e-an'-dem, e-ā'-dem.	N. Y-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-j'-dem, Y-dem, e-ō'-dem,
	Plural.	
М.	F_*	N.
N. i-ī'-dem,	e-æ'-dem,	e'-ă-dem,
G. e-o-run'-dem,	e-a-run'-dem,	e-o-run'-dem,
D. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem,		e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem,
Ac. e-os'-dem,	e-as'-dem,	e'-ă-dem,
V		
Ab. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem.	e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem.	e-is'dem, or i-is'-dem.

Note 1. In compound pronouns, m before d is changed into n; as, eundem, eccundem, etc.

NOTE 2. In Sallust isdem, and in Palladius hisdem occur for iisdem; and Ennius in Cicero has eademmet for eadem.

INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 135. Intensive pronouns are such as serve to render an object emphatic.

+ To this class belong *ipse*, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. See §§ 133, R. 2, and 134, R. 4.

Ipse is compounded of is and the suffix pse, and is thus declined:

		Singular.		j	Plural.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
	ip'-sĕ,	ip'-să,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
G.	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sō'-rum,	ip-sā'-rum,	ip-sō'-rum,
	ip'-sī,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sī,	jip'-sīs,	ip'-sīs,	ip'-sīs,
Ac.	ip'-sum,	ip'-sam,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sōs,	ip´-sās,	ip´-să,
V.	ip´-sĕ,	ip'-să,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
	ip'-sō.	ip'-sā.	ip'-sō.	ip'-sis.	ip'-sīs.	ip'-sis.

REMARK 1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Jupiter pree, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, etc.; and hence is sometimes called the adjunctive pronoun.

REM. 2. A nominative ipsus, occurs in early writers, and a superlative ipsissimus, his very self, is found in Plautus.

REM. 3. In old writers the is of ipse is declined, while pse remains undeclined; as, eapse, (nom. and abl.), eampse, and eopse, instead of ipsa, ipsam, and ipso. So also reapse, i. e. re eapse, "in fact."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 136. Relative pronouns are such as relate to a preceding noun or pronoun.

1. They are qui, who, and the compounds quicumque and quisquis, whoever. The latter are called general relatives.

2. In a general sense, the demonstrative pronouns are often relatives; but the name is commonly appropriated to those above specified. They serve to introduce a proposition, limiting or explaining a preceding noun or pronoun, to which they relate, and which is called the antecedent.

Qui is thus declined :-

	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F_{ullet}	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. quī, G. cū'-jūs, D. cui,* Ac. quem, V. — Ab. quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quŏd, cū'-jŭs, cui, quŏd, —— quō.	quī, quō'-rum, quĭ'-bŭs, quōs, quōs, quĭ'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, quĭ'-bŭs, quās, quĭ'-bŭs.	quæ, quō'-rum, quĭ'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————

REMARK 1. $Qu\bar{\imath}$ is sometimes used for the ablative singular, in all genders, and rarely also for the ablative plural. To the ablatives quo, qua, qui, and qui-bus, cum is commonly annexed, cf. § 133, 4. Cicero uses quicum for quicum, when an indefinite person is meant.

Rem. 2. Queis (monosyllabic, § 9, R.1), and quis are sometimes used in the dative and ablative plural for quibus. Cujus and cui were anciently written quojus and quoi: and, instead of the genitive cūjus, a relative adjective cūjus, a, um, very rarely occurs.

3. Quicumque, (or quicunque), is declined like qui.

REM. 3. Qui is sometimes separated from cumque by the interposition of one or more words; as, quw me cumque vocant terrw. Virg. A similar separation sometimes occurs in the other compounds of cumque.

4. Quisquis is thus declined:-

۵.	Plural.		
М.	F.	N.	M.
N. quis'-quis, Ac. quem'-quem, Ab. quō'-quō.	quis'-quis,† quā'-quā.	quid'-quid, quid'-quid, quō'-quō.	N. quī'-quī, D. qui-bus'-quĭ-bus.

REM. 4. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqui for quisquis occurs in Plantus; and quidquid is used adjectively in Cato R. R. 48.

^{*} See § 9, 5; and cf. § 306, (1.)

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 137. Interrogative pronouns are such as serve to inquire which of a number of objects is intended.

They are

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. The interrogative qui is declined like qui the relative.

Quis is thus declined :--

Singular.				Plural.				
	M	F_{ullet}	N.	M.	F.	N.		
G. D. Ac. V.	quis, cū'-jūs, cui, quem, quem,	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quid, cū'-jŭs, cui, quid, ————————————————————————————————————	quī, quō'-rum, quĭ'-bŭs, quōs, quī'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, ————————————————————————————————————	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————		

REMARK (1.) Quis is sometimes used by comic writers in the feminine, and even in the neuter. Quisnam, quisque and quisquam also occur as feminine.

REM. (2.) Quī is used for the ablative of quis in all genders, as it is for that of the relative qui. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

- Rem. (3.) Quis and qui have sometimes the signification of the indefinite pronoun aliquis (some one, any one), especially after the conjunctions ec (for en), si, ne, neu, nisi, num; and after relatives, as quo, quanto, etc. Sometimes quis and qui are used in the sense of qualis? what sort?
- 2. The compounds quisnam and quinam have respectively the signification and declension of the interrogatives quis and qui. In the poets nam sometimes stands before quis. Virg. G. 4, 445.
- 3. Ecquis and numquis are declined and used like quis; but are sometimes adjectives. Virg. Ecl. 10, 28: Cic. Att. 13, 8.
- REM. (4.) Ecqua is sometimes found in the nominative singular feminine; and the neuter plural of numquis is numqua.
- Rem. (5.) Ecqui and numqui also occur, declined like the interrogative qui, and, like that, used adjectively.
- 4. Ecquisnam and numquisnam are declined like ecquis; but are found only in the singular;—the former in the nominative in all genders, and in the ablative masculine; the latter in the nominative masculine and accusative neuter. In the nominative feminine and in the ablative, the former is used adjectively.

5. The interrogative cujus is also defective:-

	Singular	•		Plural.
М	F.	N.		F.
N. eū'-jŭs,	cū'-jă,	cū'-jum,	1	N. cū'-jæ,
Ac. cū'-jum,	cū'-jam,		1	Ac. cū'-jās.
Ab.	cū'-iā.			

6. Cūjās is declined like an adjective of one termination; cūjas, cujātšs. See § 139, 4.

NOTE. The interrogative pronouns are used not only in direct questions but in such dependent clauses also, as contain only an indirect question; as, e.g. in the direct question, quis est? who is he? in the indirect, nesclo quis sit, I know not who he is. Qui, in this sense, is found for quis; as, qui sit aperit, he discloses who he is. Cf. § 265, N.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 138. Indefinite pronouns are such as denote an object in a general manner, without indicating a particular individual. They are

Alĭquis, some one.	Quisquam, any one.	Quīdam, a certain one.
Siquis, if any.	Quispiam, some one.	Quilibet, any one you
Nequis, lest any.	Unusquisque, each.	Quīvis, \ please.
Quisque, every one.	Aliquipiam, any, some.	Quis and qui, § 137, R. (3.)

Note. Siquis and nequis are commonly written separately, si quis and nequis: so also unus quisque.

1. Aliquis is thus declined:-

		Singular.	
	М.	F_{ullet}	N.
N. G. D. Ac. V.	al'-ĭ-quis, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quem,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quam,	al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid,
Ab.	al'-ĭ-quo.	al'-ĭ-quā.	al'-ĭ-quo.
		Plural.	
	M.	F_*	N.
N.	al'-ĭ-qui,	al'-ĭ-quæ,	al'-ĭ-qua,
G.	al-i-quō'-rum,	al-i-quā'-rum,	al-i-quō'-rum,
D.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus,*	a-liq'-uĭ-bus,	a-liq'-uĭ-bus,
Ac.	al'-ĭ-quos,	al'-ĭ-quas,	al'-ĭ-qua,
V. Ab .	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.

^{*} Pronounced a-lik-we-bus. See §§ 9, 4, and 21, 3.

- 2. Siquis and nēquis are declined in the same manner; but they sometimes have que in the fem. singular and neut. plural.
- (a.) Aliquis, in the nominative singular masculine, is used both as a substantive and as an adjective;—aliqui, as an adjective, but is nearly obsolete. Aliqua in the fem. sing. occurs as an adjective in Lucretius, 4, 2, 64. Siqui, and nequis, which are properly adjectives, are used also substantively for siquis and nequis, and in the nominative singular masculine these two forms are equivalent. The ablatives aliqui and siqui also occur.
- (b.) Alīquid, sīquid, and nēquid, like quid, are used substantively; alīquod, etc., like quod, are used adjectively.
 - 3. Quisque, quisquam, and quispiam, are declined like quis.
- (a.) In the neuter singular, however, quisque has quodque, quidque, or quicque; quisquam has quidquam or quicquam; and quispiam has quodpiam, quidpiam, or quippiam. The forms quidque or quicque, quidpiam or quippiam are used substantively.
- (b.) Quisquam wants the feminine (except quamquam, Plaut. Mil. 4, 2, 68), and also the plural, and, with a few exceptions in Plautus, it is always used substantively, its place as an adjective being supplied by ullus. Quispiam is scarcely used in the plural, except in the nominative feminine, quepiam.
- 4. Unusquisque is compounded of unus and quisque, which are often written separately, and both words are declined.

Thus unusquisque, uniuscujusque, unicuique, unumquemque, etc. The neuter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural. Unumquidquid for unumquidque occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.

5. Quidam, quilibet, and quivis, are declined like qui, except that they have both quod and quid in the neuter, the former used adjectively, the latter substantively.

Note. Quidam has usually n before d in the accusative singular and genitive plural; as, quendam, quorundam, etc. Cf. § 134, Note 1.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 139. 1. The possessive are derived from the genitives of the substantive pronouns, and of quis, and designate something belonging to their primitives.

They are meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and $c\bar{u}jus$. Meus, tuus, and suus, are declined like $b\bar{o}nus$; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine mi, and very rarely meus. Cf. § 105, R. 3. In late writers mi occurs also in the feminine and neuter.

- 2. $C\bar{u}jus$ also is declined like $b\bar{o}nus$; but is defective. See § 137, 5. It occurs only in early Latin and in legal phraseology.
 - 3. Noster and vester are declined like piger. See § 106.

REMARK 1. The terminations pte and met intensive are sometimes annexed to possessive pronouns, especially to the ablative singular; as, suopte pondère, by its own weight; suapte manu, by his own hand. So nostrapte culpā; suumpte amīcum; meāmet culpā. The suffix met is usually followed by ipse; as, Hannibal suāmet ipse fraude captus abiit. Liv.; but Sallust has meamet facta dicère.

REM. 2. Suus, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. Meus, tuus, noster, and vester, are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person. See § 182, 4.

2*

(b.) Nostras is found in the nominative and genitive singular, in the nominative plural, (masc. and fem., nostrates, neut. nostratia), and in the ablative, (nostratībus). Cūjas or quojas occurs in the nominative, genitive and accusative (cujūtem masc.) singular, and in the nominative plural, masc. (cujātes). Cf. § 137, 6.—Nostrātis and cujātis (or quojātis) also occur in the nominative.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 5. To the adjective pronouns may be added certain adjectives of so general a meaning, that they partake, in some degree, of the character of pronouns. Of this kind are:-
- (1.) (a.) Alius, ullus, nullus, and nonnullus, which answer to the question, who?
- (b.) Alter, neuter, alteruter, utervis, and uterlibet, which answer to the question, *ŭter?* which of two?
- (2.) Adjectives denoting quality, size, or number, in a general way. These stand in relation to one another, and are hence called correlatives.

REMARK. The relatives and interrogatives of this class begin with qu, and are alike in form. The indefinites are formed from the relatives by prefixing ali. The demonstratives begin with t, and are sometimes strengthened by dem. A general relative, having a meaning more general than the relative, is formed by doubling the simple relative, or by affixing to it the termination cumque. A general indefinite is formed by annexing libet or vis to the relative.

(3.) Their mutual relation is denoted by the following table, with which may be compared the adverbial correlatives, § 191, R. 1.

Interrog.	Demonstr.	Relat.	Relat. general.	Indefin.	Indef general.			
quālis?	tālis,	quālis,	qualis-qualis, qualiscumque,	}	qualislibet,			
quantus?	tantus,	quantus,	(amontus amontus	aliquantus,	quantuslibet,			
quŏt?	tŏt, totīdem,		Carnot arret	alĭquot,	quotlibet,			
quŏtus?	tŏtus,	quŏtus,	quotuscumque,	(aliquŏtus),				
Diminutives								

Note 1. The suffix cumque, which is used in forming general relatives, is composed of the relative adverb cum (quum) and the suffix que, expressive of universality, as in quisque and in adverbs, (see § 191). Cumque, therefore, originally signified 'whenever.' When attached to a relative, whether a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, it renders the relative meaning more general; as, qui, who; quicumque, whoever; or, every one who.

quantuluscumque. aliquantălum.

Note 2. Cujusmodi is sometimes used for qualis, and hujusmodi, istiusmodi, ejusmodi, and ejusdemmodi for tālis. Cf. § 134, R. 5.

quantălus? tantălus.

VERBS.

- § 140. A verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing.
- 1. That of which any thing is affirmed is called the *subject* of the verb. (2.) That which is affirmed of the subject is called the *predicate*. Cf. § 201.
- 3. A verb either expresses an action or state; as, puer legit, the boy reads; aqua calet, the water is warm;—or it connects an attribute with a subject; as, terra est rotunda, the earth is round.
- 4. All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except sum, I am, the most common use of which is, to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used, it is called the copula.

§ 141. Verbs are either active or neuter.

Note. Active and neuter verbs are sometimes called transitive and intransitive; and verbs of motion are by some grammarians divided into active-transitive and active-intransitive, according as they require, or do not require, an object after them.

- I. An active or transitive verb expresses such an action as requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, amo te, I love thee; sequitur consulem, he follows the consul.
- II. A neuter or intransitive verb expresses such an action or state, as does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, equus currit, the horse runs; gradior, I walk.

REMARK 1. Many verbs, in Latin, are considered as neuter, which are usually translated into English by active verbs. Thus indulge, I indulge, noceo, I hurt, pareo, I obey, are reckoned among neuter verbs. In strictness, such Latin verbs denote rather a state than an action, and their sense would be more exactly expressed by the verb to be with an adjective; as, 'I am indulgent, I am hurtful,' etc. 'Some verbs in Latin, which do not usually take an object after them, are yet active, since the object is omitted by ellipsis. Thus credo properly signifies to intrust, and, in this sense, takes an object; as, credo hili, believe me.

To verbs belong voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

VOICES.

- (a.) Voice, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the relation of the agent to the action of the verb.
- (b.) Most active Latin verbs have, for this purpose, two forms, which are called the active and passive voices.
- 1. A verb in the active voice represents the agent as acting upon some person or thing, called the object; as, puer legit librum, the boy is reading a book.

- 2. A verb in the passive voice represents the object as acted upon by the agent; as, liber legitur a puero, a book is read by the boy.
- REM. 2. By comparing the two preceding examples, it will be seen that they have the same meaning. The passive voice may thus be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active in the ablative case, with or without the preposition a or ab, according as it is a voluntary or involuntary agent. The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the agent as acting; the passive, chiefly to exhibit the object as acted upon. In the one case the object, in the other the agent, is frequently omitted, and left indefinite; as, pure legit, the boy is reading, scil. librum, librus, levas, etc., a book, a letter, etc.; virtus laudātur, virtue is praised, scil. ab hominībus, by men.

The two voices are distinguished from each other by peculiar terminations.

Cf. § 152.

- § 142. 1. Neuter verbs have, in general, only the form of the active voice. They are, however, sometimes used impersonally in the passive voice. See § 184, 2.
- 2. The neuter verbs audeo, I dare, fido, I trust, gaudeo, I rejoice, and soleo, I am wont, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses; as, ausus sum, I dared. Hence these verbs are called neuter passives, or semi-deponents.
- 3. The neuter verbs vapălo, I am beaten, and vēneo, I am sold, have an active form, but a passive meaning, and are hence called neutral passives.
- 4. (a.) Deponent verbs have a transitive or intransitive signification with only the passive form. They are called deponent verbs, from depōno, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sequor, I follow; morior, I die.
- (b.) Some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive signification, especially in the perfect participle. These are sometimes called common verbs. Cf. § 162, 17.

MOODS.

- § 143. (a.) Moods (or modes) are forms of the verb, which denote the relation of the action or state, expressed by the verb, to the mind of the speaker or to some other action.
- (b.) Latin verbs have four moods—the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive.
- 1. The indicative mood is used in independent and absolute assertions and inquiries; as, amo, I love; audisne? dost thou hear?
- 2. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind; as, si me obsecret, redibo; if he entreat me, I will return.
- 3. The imperative mood is used in commanding, exhorting, or entreating; as, ama, love thou; amanto, they shall love.

4. The *infinitive* mood is used to denote an action or state indefinitely, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject; as, virtus est vitium fugere, to shim vice is a virtue.

TENSES.

- § 144. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.
- 1. Time admits of a threefold division, into present, past, and future; and, in each of these times, an action may be represented either as going on, or as completed. From these two divisions arise the six tenses of a Latin verb, each of which is distinguished by its peculiar terminations.
- 2. They are called the present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluper-fect, and future perfect tenses.

Present action not complete; amabam, I love, or am loving; Present tense.

Present action pleted; amabam, I was loving; Imperfect tense.

Present action complete action complete amawais, I have loved; Perfect tense.

Past amawais, I had loved; Pluperfect tense.

Future pleted; amawais, I shall have loved; Future perfect tense.

- 3. There is the same number of tenses in the passive voice, in which actions not completed are represented by simple forms of the verb, and those which are completed by compound forms.
- Present action not completed; amor, I am loved; Present tênse.

 Future pleted; amābar, I was loved; Imperfect tense.

 Present action completed; amātus sum, or fui, I have been loved; Perfect tense.

 Present completed; amātus sum, or fui, I have been loved; Pluperfect.

 Future pleted; amātus eram, or fueram, I had been loved; Pluperfect.
- § 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, \(\tilde{a}mo, \) I love, or am loving.
- 1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense; as, apud Parthos, signum datur tympăno; among the Parthians, the signal is given by a drum. A general truth is sometimes also expressed by the perfect.
- 2. The present tense may also denote an action which has existed for some time, and which still exists; as, tot annos bella gero; for so many years I have waged, and am still waging war.
- 3. The present tense is often in narration used for the perfect indefinite. It is then called the historical present; as, desiliant ex equis, provolant in primum; they dismout, they fly forward to the front.
- II. The *imperfect tense* represents an action as going on at some past time, but not then completed; as, *amābam*, I was loving.
- 1. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, 4 legēbam, I was wont to read.
- 2. It may also denote an action which had existed for some time, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiebat jamdūdum verba; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.

- 3. In letters, and with reference not to the time of their being written, but to that of their being read, the imperfect is sometimes used for the present as, expectābam, I was expecting, (i. e. when I wrote).
- 4. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, preparing, or attempting to act at a definite past time.
- III. The future tense denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, but without reference to its completion; as, amābo, I shall love, or shall be loving.
- IV. The perfect tense represents an action either as just completed, or as completed in some indefinite past time; as, amāvi, I have loved, or I loved.

REMARK. In the former sense, it is called the perfect definite; in the latter, the perfect indefinite, historical perfect, or agrist.

- V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, litteras scripseram, quum nuncius vēnit; I had written the letter, when the messenger arrived.
- VI. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be completed, at or before the time of some other future action or event; as, quum cœnavĕro, proficiscar; when I shall have supped, I will go.
- NOTE 1. This tense is often, but improperly, called the future subjunctive. It has the signification of the indicative mood, and corresponds to the second future in English.
- Note 2. The imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect tenses are sometimes called preterites or the preterite tenses.
- Note 3. The present, imperfect, and future tenses passive, in English, do not express the exact sense of those tenses in Latin, as denoting an action which is, was, or will be, going on at a certain time. Thus laudor signifies, not 'I am praised,' but 'I am in the act of being praised,' or, if such an expression is admissible, 'I am being praised.'
- REMARK 1. The six tenses above enumerated are found only in the indicative mood.
- REM. 2. The subjunctive mood, in the regular conjugation, has the present and past, but no future tenses.
- Note 4. The tenses of the subjunctive mood have less definiteness of meaning, in regard to time, than those of the indicative. Thus the present and perfect, besides their common signs, may or can, may have or can have, must, in certain connections, be translated by might, could, would, or should; might have, could have, etc. The tenses of this mood must often, also, be translated by the corresponding tenses of the indicative. For a more particulamaccount of the signification of each of the tenses of the subjunctive mood, see § 260.
- REM. 3. The imperative mood has two tenses—a present and a future; the former for that which is to be done at once, and the latter for that which is to be done in future.
- REM. 4. The infinitive mood has three tenses—the present, the perfect, and the future; the first of which denotes an incomplete, the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

NUMBERS.

§ 146. Number, in verbs, is the form by which the unity or plurality of their subject is denoted. Hence verbs, like nouns, have two numbers—the singular and the plural. Cf. § 35, 1.

PERSONS.

- § 147. Person, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the person of their subject. Hence in each number there are three persons—the first, second, and third. Cf. § 35, 2.
- 1. The imperative present has only the second person in both numbers. The imperative future has in each number the second and third persons, but in the singular they have both the same form, -to in the active, and -tor in the passive voice.
- 2. As the signification of the infinitive mood is not limited to any subject, it admits no change to express either number or person.
- 3. The following are the terminations of the different persons of each number, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, in both voices:—

	1	Active.		Passive.			
Person.	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.	3.	
Singular.	o, i, or m,	s,	t;	r,	ris,	tur;	
Plural.	mus,	tis,	nt.	mur,	mĭni,	ntur.	

These may be called personal terminations.

REMARK 1. The perfect indicative active is irregular in the second person singular and plural, which end in sti and stis, and in one of the forms of the third person plural, which ends in re.

REM. 2. The passive form above given belongs to the simple tenses only.

REM. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, ego, nos; tu and cos, are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persons being sufficiently distinguished by the terminations of the verb.

PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

- § 148. 1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partaking of its meaning, but having the form of an adjective.
- (1.) Like a verb, it has different voices and tenses; like an adjective, it has declension* and gender; and like both, it has two numbers.
- (2.) Active verbs have usually four participles—two in the active voice, a present and a future; as, amans, loving; amatūrus, about to love;—and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a future; as, amātus, loved, or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

- (3.) Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.
- (4.) Deponent verbs, both active and neuter, may have the participles of both voices.
- 2. (a.) Gerunds are verbal nouns, used only in the oblique cases, and expressing the action or state of the verb; as, amandi, of loving, etc.
- (b.) Like other abstract nouns, they are found only in the singular number, and by their cases supply the place of a declinable present infinitive active.
- 3. Supines also are verbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amātum, to love; amātu, to be loved.

REMARK. These also serve in certain connections to supply the place of the infinitive present both active and passive. The supine in um is called the former supine; that in u, the latter. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

CONJUGATION.

- § 149. 1. The conjugation of a verb is the regular formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- 2. There are four conjugations, which are characterized by the vowel before re in the present of the infinitive active.

In the first conjugation, it is \bar{a} long; In the second, . . . \bar{e} long; In the third, . . . \check{e} short; In the fourth, . . . $\bar{\imath}$ long.

EXCEPTION. Do, dáre, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first conjugation, have \check{a} short before re.

- § 150. A verb, like a noun, consists of two parts—the root, and the termination. Cf. § 40, R. 10.
- 1. The first or general root of a verb consists of those letters that are found in every part. This root may always be found by removing the termination of the present infinitive.
- 2. There are also two special roots, the first of which is found in the perfect, and is called the *second* root; the other, found in the supine or perfect participle, is called the *third* root.
- 3. In regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, the *second* root is formed by adding, respectively, \tilde{av} , u, and \tilde{iv} , to the *general* root; and the *third* root by a similar addition of \tilde{at} , \tilde{it} , and \tilde{it} .

REMARK. Many verbs, in each of the conjugations, form their second and third roots irregularly.

4. In the third conjugation, the second root either is the same as the first, or is formed from it by adding s; the third root is formed by adding t. See § 171.

Note. In the second and fourth conjugations, e and i before o are considered as belonging not to the root, but to the termination. In verbs whose second or third roots are formed irregularly, the general root often undergoes some change in the parts derived from them.

- 5. The vowel which unites the general root with the remaining letters of the verb, is called the *connecting* vowel. Each conjugation, except the third, is, in a great degree, distinguished by a peculiar connecting vowel, which is the same as characterizes the infinitives. See § 149, 2.
- (a.) In the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is generally \check{e} or i. In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in io of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, a in docamt, u in capiunt, etc.
- (b.) In verbs whose second and third roots are formed irregularly, the connecting vowel often disappears, or is changed in the parts derived from those roots; but it is almost always found in the parts derived from the first root.
- § 151. 1. From the first root are derived, in each voice, the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive; the imperative, and the present infinitive. From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerund, and the future participle passive.
- 2. From the second root are derived, in the active voice, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive.
- 3. (a.) From the third root are derived, in the active voice, the supine in um, and the future participle; the latter of which, with the verb esse, constitutes the future infinitive active.
- (b.) From this root are derived, in the passive voice, the supine in u, and the perfect participle; from the latter of which, with the verb sum, are formed all the tenses which in the active are derived from the second root. The future infinitive passive is formed from the supine in um, and iri, the present infinitive passive of the verb eo, to go.
- 4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in um, and the present infinitive, are called the principal parts of the verb, because from the first three the several roots are ascertained, and from the last, the characteristic vowel of the conjugation. In the passive voice, the principal parts are the present indicative and infinitive, and the perfect participle.

NOTE. As the supine in um is wanting in most verbs, the third root must often be determined from the perfect participle, or the future participle active.

§ 152. The following table exhibits a connected view of the verbal terminations, in all the conjugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.

-entŭr. -eantŭr. -antŭr. -iantŭr.

-eamini, -eamini, -amini, -iamini,

-ēmŭr, -eāmŭr, -āmŭr, -iāmŭr,

-ētŭr; -eātŭr; -ātŭr; -iātŭr;

or ērě, or ērě, or ārě, or iārě,

-ēris -eāris -āris -iāris

-ent. -eant. -ant.

-ētfs, -eātfs, -ātfs, -iātfs,

-ēmŭs, -eāmŭs, -āmŭs, -iāmŭs,

it;

-ēs, -ēs, -ās,

1. -em, 2. -eam, 3. -am, 4. -iam,

Terminations added to the First Root.

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PASSIVE VOICE.

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			ကံ	-antŭr. -entŭr.	-untŭr. -iuntŭr.		-abantŭr. -ebantŭr. -ebantŭr.	-iebantŭr.		-abuntŭr. -ebuntŭr.	-entŭr.			
	PLURAL.	Persons.	çi	-amini, -emini,	-imini, -imini,		-abamini, -ebamini,	-iebamini,		-abimini,	-emini, -iemini.			
			1.	-āmŭr, -ēmŭr,	-Imŭr, -Imŭr,		-abāmŭr, -ebāmŭr, -ebāmŭr,	-iebāmŭr,		-abimir, -ebimir,	-ēmŭr,			
			တီ	-ātŭr; -ētŭr;	-ltŭr; -itŭr;		-abātŭr; -ebātŭr; -ebātŭr;	-iebātŭr;		-abītūr;	-etűr;	· man		
	LAR.	ms.		or -ārĕ, or -ērĕ,	-eris or -ere,		-abaris or -abare, -ebaris or -ebare, -e-baris or -ebare,	or -iebārĕ,		-aběrís or -aběrě, -eběrís or -eběrě, -	or -ērě,	40 TOT- 10		
CNSE.	SINGULAR.	Persons.	64	-aris	-ĕrĭs -īrĭs	Ţ.	-abārīs -ebārīs -ebārīs	-iebārīs	.:	-aběrís -eběrís	-eris	-10113	MOOI	ENSE.
PRESENT TENSE.					3ŏr, 4iŏr,	IMPERFECT.	1abar, 2ebar,	4iebār,	FUTURE	1ābŏr, 2ēbŏr,	8ñr,	*lall,	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD	PRESENT TENSE.
Pı					-unt.		-ābant. -ēbant.			-ābunt.			SUBJ	T.
	LURAL.	ersons.			-itis,		-abatis, -ebatis,	-iebātīs,		-abitis,	-etts,	-lens,		
	H	I			-Imús, -Imús,		-abāmŭs, -ebāmŭs,	-iebāmŭs,		-abīmŭs,	-ēmūs,	-iemus,		
	IR.		ಣ	it;	; ; ; ; ; ;		-abat;			-abit;	-ĕt;	-ret;		
	SINGULAR	Persons.	2), -as,	, 'S' - 'S'		-abas, -ebas,			-abys,	s s	-ies,		
			-	 	Conjig. 4. 20, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25		1abam, 2ebam,	-epam,		-abo,	-am,	-iam,		
				-n	Conf		H 64 6	29 4 4		ri e	4 00	d i		

8	152.					VER	BS	
	-arentŭr.	-erentŭr. -irentŭr.		-antŏr.	-untór.	andŭs, endŭs,	lŭs,	d ĭis.
	-aremini,	-ereminī,		(-abamini,)	(-emini,) (-iemini,)	PART. 2enc		
	arēmŭr, erēmŭr,	rēmŭr, rēmŭr,		atór, ētór,	-itŏr, -ītŏr,	PA	. Fi	
	arētūr; -e	TT		<u>ن</u>	Futi Litor,	$\begin{cases} 1. & -\bar{a}\bar{n}, \\ 2. & -\bar{c}\bar{n}, \end{cases}$		
	* 1	1 1			-	NFIN.	es.	_
ν.	r -arērė, r -erērė,	r -erērē r -irērě,		-amînî -emînî	-imini.	N.	L	
	-arēris or -erēris or	-erēris o	MOOD.		3ěrě, 4īrě,			_
MERKER	1ārĕr, 2ērĕr,	3erer, 4īrĕr,	RATIVE	·juəs	97A 89.44	1andī, 2endī,		
			MPE			1. 2. 2.		
	-ārent.	-erent		-anto.	-unto.		<u></u>	200
	-arētīs,	-erētis, -irētis,		-atōtĕ, -etūtĕ,	itōtĕ,	1ans,	တံ ·	4,
	arēmūs, erēmūs,	mūs, mūs,		-ato;	-ito;	PART.	Pres.	
	-are-	-irë		-āto,	-ito, -ito,	14	ľ	
	-arĕt,	-eret;		*2.17	in _A	-ārĕ,	-ere,	-īre.
	ārēs, ērēs,	eres, ires,		atě. etě.	itě. Itě.	1.2.		4.
	ārem, -ē ērem, -ē	٠.		1ā;	 	INFIN.	Pres.	
	1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00			Jugs				
)	

Inproper

Nore. Verbs in io of the third conjugation have two connecting vowels in all the parts in which they occur in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and these vowels are the same in both.

Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots.

The terminations of the tenses which are formed from the second and third roots, are the same in all the conjugations. Thus:-PASSIVE VOICE.-THIRD ROOF. ACTIVE VOICE .- SECOND ROOT.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Perf1, -isti, -1t; -1müs, -istis, -erunt or-ere. Perf1, -isti, -it; -trimis, -eraits, -erunt or-ere. Plupcram, -cris, -erit; -erimis, -eritis, -erunt. Ful. perfis ero or fuero, -is es or fueris, etc. Perferim, -eris, -erit; -erimis, -eritis, -		etc.		etc.	ņ
Singular. 5. jesti, -iti, -iti, -itimis, -istis, -èrant. ceran, -èris, -èrit; -èrimis, -èritis, -èrint. ceran, -èris, -èrit; -èrimis, -èritis, -èrint. cerim, -èris, -èritis, -èrimis, -èritis, -èrint. cerim, -èris, -èrit; -èrimis, -èritis, -èrint. cerim, -èris, -èritis, -èrimis, -èritis, -èriti		or fuisti, or fuĕrās, or fuĕrĭs,	•	or fuĕris, or fuissēs,	L. SUP.
Singular. 7, -isti, -it; -imăs, -istis, -êrunt or-ērē. Perfistis, -êrit; -êrimūs, -êritis, -êrunteris, -ērit; -êrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -èrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -èrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēri				-ŭs sis -ŭs essēs	or fuisse.
Singular. 7, -isti, -it; -imăs, -istis, -êrunt or-ērē. Perfistis, -êrit; -êrimūs, -êritis, -êrunteris, -ērit; -êrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -èrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -èrimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit; -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ērit, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ērinteris, -ēritis, -ērimūs, -ēri	Singular.	m fuľ, m fuĕram, m fuĕro,		r fuĕrim, r fuissem,	rfus esse INF. Fut
Singular. 7, -isti, -itt1müs, -istis, -ērunt or -ērĕistis, -ērāt; -ērāmūs, -ērātis, -ēruntēro, -ēris, -ērīti; -ērimūs, -ēritis, -ēruntērim, -ērīs, -ērīti; -ērimūs, -ēritīs, -ērintissēs, -issēt; -issēmūs, -issētīs, -issent. 1. INF. Fulūrūs osse. PART. Fulūrūs. F. SUPum.		-ŭs sum -ŭs ĕram -ŭs ĕro		-tts sim o	INFIN. Pe Perfŭs.
Singular. 7, -isti, -ItImŭs, -istis, -ērunt or -ērēisto, -ērīs, -ērīs, -ērālis, -ērant. -erīs, -ērīs, -ērīt; -ērimūs, -ērītis, -ērint. SUBJUNCTIVE I erim, -ērīs, -ērim, -ērīs, -ērint. issem, -issēs, -issēt; -issēmūs, -issētis, -issent. T. INF. Futūrūs osse. PART. Futūrūs, F. SUPum.		Perf. Plup. Fut. perf.	100D.	Perf. Plup.	PART.
.f. čro, črin šren issel		-ērunt or -ērě. -ĕrant. -ĕrint.		-ĕrint.	is. F. SUPum.
.f. čro, črin šren issel	Plural.	-istīs, -èrātīs, -ĕritīs,	31	-ĕritīs, -issētīs,	se. Futūr
.f. čro, črin šren issel		-Imŭs, -èrāmŭs, -èrimŭs,		-ĕrimŭs, -issēmŭs,	. Perfiss
.f. čro, črin šren issel	٠.	-īt; -ērāt; -ērīt;		-črřt;	INFIN- -ūrŭs e
.f. čro, črin šren issel	Singulas	istī, -ċrās, -ĕrīs,			F. Fut.
Perf. Plup. Fut. perf. Penf. Plup.		-r, -ĕram, -ĕro,		-ĕrim,	
		Perf. Plup. Fut. perf.		Perf. Plup.	

REMARK 1. In analyzing a verb, the voice, person, and number, are ascertained by the personal terminations. See § 147, 3. The conjugation, mood, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and the personal terminations. Thus in amabamus, mus denotes that the verb is of the active voice, plural number, and first person; ba denotes that it is of the indicative mood, imperfect tense; and the connecting vowel a determines it to be of the first conjugation. So in amarem tain, mini denotes the passive voice, plural number, and second person; re, the subjunctive mood, imperfect tense; and a, as before, the first conjugation.

REM. 2. Sometimes, the part between the root of the verb and the personal termination, does not precisely determine the conjugation, mood, and tense, but only within certain limits. In such cases, the conjugation may be learned, by finding the present tense in the dictionary, and if two forms are alike in the same conjugation, they can only be distinguished by the sense. Thus amēmus and docēmus have the same termination; but, as amo is of the first, and doceo of the second conjugation, the former is determined to be the subjunctive, the latter the indicative, present. Regar may be either the future indicative, or the present subjunctive—bibimus either the present or the perfect indicative.

§ 153. Sum, I am, is called an auxiliary verb, because it is used, in conjunction with participles, to supply the want of simple forms in other verbs. From its denoting existence, it is sometimes called the substantive verb.

REMARK. Sum is very irregular in those parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root. Its imperfect and future tenses, except in the third person plural of the latter, have the form of a pluperfect and future perfect. It is thus conjugated:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

+ Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Fut. Part. Sum, es'-sĕ, fu'-ī, fū'-tū'-rŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

 $\begin{cases}
1. \text{ sum, } I \text{ am,} \\
2. \text{ ës, } thou \text{ art,*} \\
3. \text{ est, } he \text{ is;}
\end{cases}$

su'-mus, we are, es'-tis, yet are, sunt, they are.

Imperfect.

1. ĕ'-ram, I was,

ĕ-rā'-mŭs, we were, ĕ-rā'-tĭs, ye were,

2. ĕ'-rās, thou wast, 3. ĕ'-răt, he was;

ĕ'-rant, they were.

Future. shall, or will.

1. ĕ'-rŏ, I shall be,

ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, we shall be,

2. ĕ'-ris, thou wilt be,

ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs, ye will be.

3. ĕ'-rĭt, he will be;

ĕ'-runt, they will be.

^{*} In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used, except in solemn discourse; as, tu es, you are.

[†] The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

Perfect. have been, or was.

- 1. fu'-ī, I have been,
- 2. fu-is'-tī, thou hast been,
- 3. fu'-ĭt, he has been;

fu'-i-mus, we have been, fu-is'-tis, ye have been, fu-ē'-runt or re, they have been.

Pluperfect.

- 1. fu'-ĕ-ram, I had been,
- 2. fu'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst been, 3. fu'-ĕ-răt, he had been;
- fu-e-rā'-mus, we had been, fu-e-rā'-tĭs, ye had been, fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

- 1. fu'-ĕ-rŏ, I shall have been,
- 2. fu'-ĕ-rīs, thou wilt have been, 3. fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he will have been;
- fu-er'-ĭ-mus, we shall have been, fu-er'-ī-tis, ye will have been, fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can.

- 1. sim, I may be,
- 2. sīs, thou mayst be, 3. sit, he may be;

sī'-mus, we may be, sī'-tĭs, ye may be, sint, they may be.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

- 1. es'-sem, I would be,
- 2. es'-sēs, thou wouldst be,
- 3. es'-set, he would be;
- es-sē'-mus, we would be, es-sē'-tis, ye would be, es'-sent, they would be.

Perfect.

- 1. fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have been,
- 2. fu'-ĕ-rīs, thou mayst have been, 3. fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he may have been;
- fu-er'-i-mus, we may have been, fu-er'-ī-tis, ye may have been, fu'-ĕ-rint, they may have been.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

- 1. fu-is'-sem, I would have been,
- 3. fu-is'-set, he would have been;
- fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been, 2. fu-is'-sēs, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-sē'-tĭs, ye would have been, fu-is'-sent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- Pres. 1. es, be thou, Fut. 2. es'-tŏ, thou shalt be, 2. es'-tŏ, let him be;
- es'-tĕ, be ye. es-tō'-tĕ, ye shall be, sun'-tŏ, let them be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- Present. es'-sĕ, to be.
- Perfect. fu-is'-sĕ, to have been.
- Future. fă-tū'-rus (ă, um), es'-se, or fo'-re, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Future. fŭ-tū'-rus, a, um, about to be.

§ 154. REMARK 1. A present participle ens seems to have been anciently in use, and is still found in the compounds absens, præsens, and potens.

REM. 2. The perfect fui, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete fuo, whence come also the participle futurus, an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat; —, —, fuant, and the forms fuvimus, perf. ind., fuverint, perf. subj., and fuvisset, plup. subj.

REM. 3. From fuo appear also to be derived the following:-

Subj. imperf. fő'-rem, fő'-rēs, fő'-rět; —————————————————, fő'-rent. Inf. pres. fő'-rě.

These forms seem to have been contracted from fuĕrem, etc., and fuĕre. Fŏrem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but the infinitive fŏre has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futūrus esse.

REM. 4. Siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint, are found in ancient writers, as are also escit for erit, escunt for erunt, ese, esētis, and esent, for esse, essētis, and essent.

REM. 5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, absum, adsum, dēsum, insum, intersum, obsum, præsum, subsum, and supersum.

REM. 6. PROSUM, from the old form $pr\bar{o}d$ for $pr\bar{o}$, and sum, has d after pro, when the simple verb begins with e; as,

Ind. pres. prō'-sum, prōd'-es, prōd'-est, etc. — imperf. prod'-ĕ-ram, prod'-ĕ-rās, etc.

REM. 7. (a.) Possum is compounded of potis, able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then potis is the same in all genders and numbers.

(b.) In composition, is is omitted in potis, and t, as in other cases, coming before s, is changed into s. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, es of the simple verb is dropped, as is also f at the beginning of the second root. In every other respect possum is conjugated like sum, wherever it is found; but the imperative, and the parts derived from the third root, are wanting.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Pos'-sum, pos'-sĕ, pŏt'-u-ī, I can, or I am able.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

pos'-sum, pŏ'-tĕs, pŏ'-test; po pos'-sū-mūs, pŏ-tes'-tīs, pos'-sunt. po

pos'-sim, pos'-sīs, pos'-sīt; pos-sī'-mūs, pos-sī'-tīs, pos'-sint.

Imperfect.

pŏt'-ĕ-ram, pot'-ĕ-rās, pot'-ĕ-răt; pŏt-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, -ĕ-rā'-tĭs, -ĕ-rant. pos'-sem, pos'-sēs, pos'-sēt; pos-sē'-mūs, -sē'-tīs, pos'-sent.

Future.

pŏt'-ĕ-rŏ, pŏt'-ĕ-rĭs, pŏt'-ĕ-rĭt; pŏ-tĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, po-tĕr'-I-tĭs, pot'-ĕ-runt.

Perfect.

pŏt'-u-ī, pŏt-u-is'tī, pŏt'-u-Ĭt; pŏ-tu'-ĭ-nūs, -is'-tīs, -ē'-runt or -ē'rĕ. pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rim, -ĕ-rǯs, -ĕ-rɪt; pŏt-u-ĕr'-Ṭ-mūs, -¬Ṭ-tɪs, -ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-ram, -ĕ-rās, -ĕ-rāt; pŏt-u-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, -ĕ-rā'-tĭs, -ĕ-rant. pŏt-u-is'-sem, -is'-sēs, -is'-sĕt; pŏt-u-is-sē'-mŭs, -is-sē'-tĭs, -is'-sent.

Future Perfect

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rŏ, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rĭt; pŏt-u-ĕr'-j̄-mūs, pŏt-u-ĕr'-j̄-tis, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rint.

(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVE. po'-tens, able.

Pres. pos'-sě. Perf. pŏt-u-is'-sě.

Note. The following forms are also found; potissum for possum, potessunt for possunt, potessim and possiem for possim, possies, possiet and potessit for possis and possit, potessem for possem, potesse for posse, and before a passive infinitive the passive forms potestur for potest, poteratur for poterat, and possetur for posset.—Potis and pote without est are sometimes used for potest.

§ 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. ă-mā'-rĕ,

Perf. Ind. ă-mā'-vī,

I love,

thou lovest,

he loves;

Supine. ă-mā'-tum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. love, do love, am loving.

Sing. ă'-mō, ă'-mās, ă'-măt, Plur. ā-mā'-mŭs,

ă-mā'-mŭs, we love, ă-mā'-tĭs, ye love, ă'-mant, they love.

Imperfect. was loving, loved, did love.

Sing. ă-mā'-bam, ă-mā'-bās, ă-mā'-băt, Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭs, ăm-ā-bā'-tĭs,

ă-mā'-bant.

he was loving; we were loving, ye were loving, they were loving.

thou wast loving,

I was loving,

Future. shall, or will.

Sing. ă-mā'-bŏ, ă-mā'-bĭs, ă-mā'-bĭt, Plur. ă-māb'-ĭ-mŭs, ă-mā'-ĭ-tĭs, ă-mā'-bunt,

I shall love, thou wilt love, he will love; we shall love, ye will love, they will love.

Perfect. loved, or have loved.

Sing. ă-mā'-vī, ăm-ā-vis'-tī,

ă-mā'-vit,

Plur. ă-māv'-i-mŭs,

ăm-ā-vis'-tis.

a-may -1-mus, ăm-ā-vis'-tīs, ăm-ā-vē'-runt or -rĕ, I have loved, thou hast loved, he has loved; we have loved, ye have loved, they have loved.

Pluperfect. had.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-ram, ă-māv'-ĕ-rās, ă-māv'-ĕ-răt,

Plur. ă-māv-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, ă-māv-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, ă-māv'-ĕ-rant, I had loved, thou hadst loved, he had loved; we had loved, ye had loved, they had loved.

Future Perfect. shall, or will have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rŏ, ă-māv'-ĕ-rĭs, ă-māv'-ĕ-rit,

Plur. ăm-ā-vĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, ăm-ā-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ä-māv'-ĕ-rint, I shall have loved, thou wilt have loved, he will have loved; we shall have loved, ye will have loved, they will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD,

Present. may, or can.

Sing. ă'-mem, ă'-mēs, ă'-mĕt, Plur. ă-mē'-mŭs,

ur. ă-mē'-mŭs ă-mē'-tĭs, ă'-ment, I may love,
thou mayst love,
he may love;
we may love,
ye may love,
they may love.

I would love,

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

Sing. ă-mā'-rem, ă-mā'-rēs,

ă-mā'-rĕt,

Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭs,

ăm-ā-rē'-tis.

ă-mā'-rent.

thou wouldst love, he would love; we would love, ye would love, they would love.

Perfect. may, or can have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rim, ă-māv'-ĕ-rīs, ă-māv'-ĕ-rīt, Plur. ăm-ā-vĕr'-ĭ-mi

Plur. ăm-ā-vēr'-ī-mūs, ăm-ā-vēr'-ī-tīs, ă-māv'-ĕ-rint, I may have loved, thou mayst have loved, he may have loved; we may have loved, ye may have loved, they may have loved. Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

Sing. ăm-ā-vis'-sem, ăm-ā-vis'-sēs, ăm-ā-vis'-sĕt,

Plur. ăm-ā-vis-sē'-mus, ăm-ā-vis-sē'-tĭs, ăm-ā-vis'-sent,

I would have loved, thou wouldst have loved, he would have loved; we would have loved, ye would have loved, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. ă'-mā, Plur. ă-mā'-tĕ, Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏ,

ă-mā'-tŏ,

Plur. ăm-ā-tō'-tĕ, ă-man'-to, they shall love.

love thou; love ye.

thou shalt love. he shall love; ye shall love,

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rĕ, to love. Perfect. ăm-ā-vis'-sĕ, to have loved. Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rus, (ă, um,) es'-sĕ, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. ă'-mans, Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rus, ă, um,

loving. about to love.

GERUND.

G. ă-man'-dī, of loving, D. ă-man'-dŏ, for loving, loving, Ac. ă-man'-dum, Ab. ă-man'-dŏ, by loving.

SUPINE.

Former. a-ma'-tum, to love.

§ 156. PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part. A'-mor, ă-mā'-rī, ă-mā'-tús.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. am.

Sing. ă'-mŏr, I am loved,
ă-mā'-rĭs or -rĕ, thou art loved,
- ā-mā'-tŭr, he is loved;
Plur. ă-mā'-mŭr, we are loved,
ă-mām'-ĭ-nī, ye are loved,
ă-man'-tūr, they are loved.

Imperfect. was.

Future. shall, or will be.

Sing. ă-mā'-bŏr, I shall be loved, ā-māb'-ĕ-rĭs or -rĕ, thou wilt be loved; a-māb'-ĭ-tūr, he will be loved; Plur. ă-māb'-ĭ-mūr, we shall be loved, ăm-ā-bĭm'-ĭ-nī, ye will be loved, ăm-ā-bun'-tūr, they will be loved.

Perfect. have been, or was.

Sing. ă-mā'-tūs sum or fu'-ī,
 ă-mā'-tūs es or fu-is'-tī,
 ā-mā'-tūs est or fu'-i-t,
 ā-mā'-tī sū'-mūs or fu'-i-mūs,
 ă-mā'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs,
 ă-mā'-tī sunt, fu'e'-runt or -rē,
 they have been loved,
 they have been loved,
 they have been loved,

Pluperfect. had been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tūs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,
ă-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās,
ă-mā'-tūs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt,
he had been loved;
he had been loved;
we had been loved;
we had been loved,
ye had been loved,
ye had been loved,
they had been loved.

Future Perfect. shall have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tǔs ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō,
 ă-mā'-tǔs ĕ'-rīs ōr fu'-ĕ-rīs,
 ă-mā'-tǔs ĕ'-rīt or fu'-ĕ-rīt,
Plur. ā-mā'-tī ĕr-ī-mǔs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs,
 ă-mā'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-tīs,
 ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint,

ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint,

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can be.

Sing. ă'-mĕr,
ă-mĕ'-rĭs or -rĕ,
ă-mĕ'-tŭr,
Plur. ă-mĕ'-mŭr,
ă-mēm'-ĭ-nī,

I may be loved, thou mayst be loved, he may be loved; we may be loved, ye may be loved, they may be loved.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should be.

Sing. ă-mā'-rĕr, ăm-ā-rē'-rĭs or -rĕ, ăm-ā-rē'-tŭr, Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭr, ăm-ā-rēm'-1-nī,

ăm-ā-ren'-tur,

ă-men'-tur,

I would be loved, thou wouldst be loved, he would be loved, we would be loved, ye would be loved, they would be loved.

Perfect. may have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, ă-mā'-tŭs sis or fu'-ĕ-rīs, ă-mā'-tŭs sit or fu'-ĕ-rīt,

Plur. ă-mā'-ti sī'-mūs or fu-er'-ī-mūs, ă-mā'-ti sī'-tis or fu-er'-ī-tis, ă-mā'-ti sint or fu'-ĕ-rint, I may have been loved, thou mayst have been loved, he may have been loved; we may have been loved, ye may have been loved, they may have been loved.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, ă-mā'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, ă-mā'-tūs es'-sēt or fu-is'-sĕt,

Plur. ä-mä'-ti es-sc'-müs or fu-is-sc'-müs, we would have been loved, ä-mä'-ti es-sc'-tis or fu-is-sc'-tis, we would have been loved, ä-mā'-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent, they would have been loved,

I would have been loved, thou wouldst have been loved; he would have been loved; we would have been loved, ye would have been loved, they would have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. ă-mā'-rĕ,
Plur. ā-mām'-ī-nī,
Fut. Sing. ā-mā'-tŏr,
ā-mā'-tŏr,
Plur. (ăm-ā-bīm-ī-nī,
ā-man'-tŏr,

be thou loved; be ye loved. thou shalt be loved, he shall be loved; ye shall be loved), they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rī, to be loved.
Perfect. ă-mā'-tūs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to have been loved.
Future. ă-mā'-tum ī'-rī, to be about to be loved.

Gerund.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. ă-mā'-tŭs, Future. ă-man'-dus,

loved, or having been loved. to be loved.

SUPINE.

Latter, a-ma'-tū, to be loved.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, am, are derived Active. Passive. amo, Ind. pres. amor. - imperf. amābam, amābar. - fut. amābo, amābor. Subj. pres. amem, amer. - imperf. amārem, amārer. Imperat. pres. amā, amāre. - fut. amāto, amātor. Inf. pres. amāre, amāri. Part. pres. amans, fut. amandus.

From the second root, From the third root, amav, are derived amat, are derived Active. Passive. amāvi, amātus sum, etc. Ind. perf. — plup. amavěram, amātus eram, et — fut. perf. amavěro, amātus ero, etc. amavéram, amātus eram, etc. Subj. perf. amavěrim, amātus sim, etc. Inf. perf. amavissem, amātus essem, etc. amavisse, amātus esse, etc. From the third root, Inf. fut. amatūrus esse, amātum iri. Part. fut. amatūrus. - perf. amātus.

§ 157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

Form. sup. amātum.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Lat. sup. amātu.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mo'-ne-o. Pres. Inf. mo-ne'-re. Perf. Ind. mon'-u-i. Supine. mŏn'-ĭ-tum.

amandi.

Pres. Ind. mo'-ne-or. Pres. Inf. mo-ne'-rī. Perf. Part. mon'-i-tus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I advise. Sing. mo'-ne-o, mo'-nes.

mo'-net; Plur. mo-ne'-mus. mŏ-nē'-tĭs. mo'-nent.

I am advised. Sing. mo'-ne-or, mŏ-nē'-ris or -rĕ. mŏ-nē'-tŭr; Plur. mö-nē'-mŭr. mŏ-nēm'-ĭ-nī, mö-nen'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I was advising.

S. mo-nē'-bam, mŏ-nē'-bās, mŏ-nē'-băt; P. mon-ē-bā'-mus,

mŏn-ē-bā'-tĭs. mŏ-nē'-bant.

I was advised.

S. mö-nē'-băr, mon-ē-bā'-ris or -re, mŏn-ē-bā'-tŭr; P. mon-ē-bā'-mur,

mon-ē-bām'-i-nī, mŏn-ē-ban'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

....

I shall or will advise.

S. mŏ-nē'-bŏ,
mŏ-nē'-bĭs,
mŏ-nē'-bĭt;

P. mö-nēb'-i-mus, mŏ-nēb'-i-tis, mŏ-nē'-bunt.

Future.

I shall or will be advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-bŏr, mŏ-nēb'-ĕ-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-tŭr;

P. mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-mŭr, mŏn-ē-bĭm'-ĭ-nī, mŏn-ē-bun'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I advised or have advised.

S. mŏn'-u-ī, mŏn-u-is'-tī, mŏn'-u-īt;

P. mŏ-nu'-i-mŭs, mŏn-u-is'-tĭs, mŏn-u-ē'-runt or -rĕ. I was or have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕs or fu-is'-tī, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs est or fu'-ĭt;

P. mŏn'-ĭ-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī es'-tĭs or fu-is'-tĭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rĕ.

Pluperfect 1/

I had advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-ram, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rās, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-răt;

P. mŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, mŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rant.

I had been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-răt;

P. mŏn'ĭ-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-e-rā'-mŭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕ-rā'-tŭs or fu-e-rā'-tŭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mŏn-u-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, mŏn-u-ĕr'-ĭ-tis, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

I shall have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rĭs or fu'-ĕ-rĭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rĭt or fu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mon'-i-tī er'-i-mus or fu-er'-ī-mus, mon'-i-tī er'-i-tis or fu-er'-ī-tis, mon'-i-tī e'-runt or fu'-e-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can advise.

S. mo'-ne-am, mo'-ne-as, mo'-ne-at:

P. mö-ne-ā'-mŭs, mŏ-ne-ā'-tĭs, mŏ'-ne-ant. I may or can be advised.

S. mŏ'-ne-ăr, mŏ-ne-ā'-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-ne-ā'-tŭr;

P. mŏ-ne-ā'-mŭr, mŏ-ne-ām'-ĭ-nī, mŏ-ne-an'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should advise.

S. mo-ne'-rem, Roneron mŏ-nē'-rēs, Morros mŏ-nē'-rět; Mones

P. mon-ē-rē'-mus, wowen mon-ē-rē'-tis, Monentho Museon mŏ-nē'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be advised.

S. mö-nē'-rĕr, mon-ē-rē'-ris or -re. mŏn-ē-rē'-tŭr;

P. mon-ē-rē'-mur, mon-ē-rēm'-I-nī, mon-e-ren'-tur.

Perfect.

I may have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus sim or fu'-e-rim, mon'-i-tus sis or fu'-e-ris, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sĭt or fu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mon'-i-tī sī'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus. mon'-i-tī sī'-tis or fu-er'-i-tis. mon'-i-ti sint or fu'-e-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. mon'-i-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, mon'-i-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set:

P. mon'-i-ti es-se'-mus or fu-is-se'-mus, mon'-i-ti es-se'-tis or fu-is-se'-tis. mon'-i-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have advised.

S. mon-u-is'-sem, mon-u-is'-ses, mŏn-u-is'-sĕt:

I may have advised.

S. mö-nu'-ĕ-rim.

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīs,

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mon-u-er'-I-mus,

mon-u-er'-ī-tis,

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

P. mon-u-is-se'-mus. mŏn-u-is-sē'-tĭs. mon-u-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mo'-ne, advise thou; P. mŏ-nē'-tĕ, advise ye.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-to, thou shalt ad-

mŏ-nē'-tŏ, he shall advise; P. mon-ē-to'-te, ye shall ad-

> mo-nen'-to, they shall advise.

Pres. S. mo-ne'-re, be thou advised; P. mo-nem'-i-nī, be ye advised.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-tor, thou shalt be advised, mŏ-nē'-tŏr, he shall be

advised; P. (mon-ē-bim'-i-nī, ye shall

be advised,) mo-nen'-tor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mo-ne'-re, to advise.

Fut. mon-i-tu-rus es-se, to be about to advise.

Pres. mo-ne'-ri, to be advised. Perf. mon-u-is'-se, to have advised Perf. mon'-i-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been advised.

Fut. mon'-i-tum i'-ri, to be about to be advised.

PASSIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mő'-nens, advising.
Fut. mŏn-ĭ-tū'-rŭs, about to advise.
Fut. mŏ-nen'-dŭs, to be advised.

GERUND.

G. mö-nen'-dī, of advising,

D. mö-nen'-dŏ, etc.

Ac. mö-nen'-dum,

Ab. mŏ-nen'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. mon'-Y-tum, to advise. | Latter. mon'-Y-tu, to be advised.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, mon, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, rived, monu, are derived, monit, are derived, Active. Passive. Active. Passive. monitus sum, etc. Ind. pres. moneo, moneor. Ind. perf. monui, - plup. monēbam, monēbar. monuéram, monitus eram, etc. - imperf. ______fut. monēbo, moneoor. Subj. pres. moneam, monear. _______imperf. monērem, monērer. - fut. perf. monuero, monitus ero, etc.
Subj. perf. monuerim, monitus sim, etc.
plup. monuissem, monitus essem, etc. Inf. perf. Imperat. pres. mone, monēre. monuisse, monitus esse, etc. - fut. monēto, monētor. From the third root, Inf. pres. monēre, monēri. Inf. fut. monitūrus esse, monitum iri. monens, Part. pres. Part. fut. monitūrus, - fut. monendus. - perf. monitus. Gerund. monendi. Form. Sup. monitum. Lat. Sup. monitu.

§ 158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏ.
Pres. Inf. rĕg-ĕ-rĕ.
Perf. Ind. rex'-ī.
Supine. rec'-tum.

Pres. Inf. rĕ'-gŏr.
Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏr.
Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏr.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I was ruling.

S. rĕ-gē'-bam, rĕ-gē'-bās, rĕ-gē'-băt;

P. rĕg-ē-bā'-mŭs, rĕg-ē-bā'-tĭs, rĕ-gē'-bant.

nowfoot

I was ruled.

S. rĕ-gē'-băr, rĕg-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕg-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. rĕg-ē-bā'-mŭr, rĕg-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, rĕg-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

I shall or will rule.

S. rĕ'-gam, rĕ'-gēs, rĕ'-gĕt;

P. rĕ-gē'-mŭs, rĕ-gē'-tĭs, rĕ'-gent.

I shall or will be ruled.

S. rĕ'-găr, rĕ-gē'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕ-gē'-tŭr;

P. rĕ-gē'-mŭr, rĕ-gēm'-ĭ-nī, rĕ-gen'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I ruled or have ruled.

S. rex'-ī, rex-is'-tī, rex'-ĭt;

P. rex'-ĭ-mŭs, rex-is'-tĭs, rex-ē'-runt or -rĕ.

I was or have been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, rec'-tŭs ës or fu-is'-tī, rec'-tŭs est or fu'-it;

P. rec'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs, rec'-tī es'-tĭs or fu-is'-tĭs, rec'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rē.

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-ram, rex'-ĕ-rās, rex'-ĕ-răt:

P. rex-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, rex-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, rex'-ĕ-rant.

I had been ruled.

S. rec'-tus ë'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, rec'-tus ë'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, rec'-tus ë'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt;

P. rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-ĕ-rā'-mus, rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-tīs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tīs, rec'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rŏ, rex'-ĕ-rĭs, rex'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, rex'-ĕ-rint.

I shall have been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, rec'-tŭs ĕ'-rĭs or fu'-ĕ-rĭs, rec'-tŭs 'ĕ'-rŭt or fu' ĕ-rĭt;

P. rec'-tī er'-ĭ-mus' or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mus, rec'-tī er'-ĭ-tīs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tīs, rec'-tī e'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

PASSIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can rule.

S. rĕ'-gam, rĕ'-gās, rĕ'-găt;

P. re-ga'-mus, re-ga'-tus, re'-gant. I may or can be ruled.

S. rĕ'-găr, rĕ-gā'-rĭs or -rĕ,

rĕ-gā'-tŭr;
P. rĕ-gā'-mŭr,
rĕ-gām'-ĭ-nī,
rĕ-gan'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should rule.

S. rĕg'-ĕ-rem, rĕg'-ĕ-rēs, rĕg'-ĕ-rĕt;

P. rĕg-ĕ-rē'-mŭs, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-tĭs, rĕg'-ĕ-rent. I might, could, would, or should be ruled.

S. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕr, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-tŭr;

P. reg-e-re'-mur, reg-e-rem'-i-ni, reg-e-ren'-tur.

Perfect.

I may have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rim, rex'-ĕ-rĭs,

rex'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs,
rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs,
rex'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been ruled.

S. rec'-tūs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, rec'-tūs sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, rec'-tūs sit or fu'-ĕ-rīt;

P. rec'-tī si'-mūs or fu-er'-ĭ-mūs, rec'-tī sī'-tĭs or fu-er'-ĭ-tīs, rec'-tī sint or fu'-e-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.

S. rex-is'-sem, rex-is'-sēs, rex-is'-sēt;

P. rex-is-se'-mus, rex-is-se'-tis, rex-is'-sent. I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, rec'-tŭs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, rec'-tŭs es'-sĕt or fu-is'-sĕt;

P. rec'-tī es-sē'-mŭs or fu-is-sē'-mŭs, rec'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs, rec'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. rĕ'-gĕ, rule thou, P. rĕg'-i-tĕ, rule ye.

Fut. S. reg'-i-to, thou shalt rule, reg'-i-to, he shall rule;

P. rěg-ĭ-tō'-tĕ, ye shall rule, rĕ-gun'-tŏ, they shall rule.

Pres. S. rěg'-ĕ-rĕ, be thou ruled;
P. rĕ-gĭm'-ĭ-nī, be ye ruled.

Fut. S. reg'-i-tor, thou shalt be ruled, reg'-i-tor, he shall be ruled;

P. (re-gim'-i-nī, ye shall, etc.) re-gun'-tor, they shall, etc.

PASSIVE.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕ, to rule.
Perf. rex-is'-sĕ, to have ruled.
Fut. rec-tū'-rūs es'-se, to be about
to rule.

Pres. rĕ'-gī, to be ruled.

Perf. rec'-tǔs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to
have been ruled.

Fut. rec'-tum ĭ'-rī, to be about to

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. re'-gens, ruling. Fut. rec-tū'-rūs, about to rule. Perf. rec'-tŭs, ruled. Fut. re-gen'-dŭs, to be ruled.

GERUND.

G. re-gen'-dī, of ruling.

D. rĕ-gen'-dŏ, etc.

Ac. rĕ-gen'-dum,

Ab. rĕ-gen'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tū, to be ruled.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, reg, are de-From the second root, From the third root, rived, rex, are derived, rect. are derived, Ind. perf. rexi, rectus sum, etc.

— plup. rexeron, rectus eram, etc.

— fut. perf. rexero, rectus ero, etc.

Subj. perf. rexeron, rectus sim, etc.

— plup. rexissem, rectus essem, etc.

Inf. perf. rexisse. rectus essen etc. Active. Passive. Ind. pres. rego, regor. — imperf. regēbam, regēbar.
— fut. regam, regar.
Subj. pres. regam, regar.
— imperf. regērem, regērer. Imperat. pres. rege, regere. fut. regito, regitor. From the third root, Inf. pres. regere, regi. Inf. fut. rectūrus esse, rectum iri. Part. fut. rectūrus.

— perf.
Form. Sup. rectum. Part. pres. regens, - fut. regendus. rectus. Gerund. regendi. Lat. Sup. rectu.

§ 159. Verbs in IO of the Third Conjugation.

Verbs in io of the third conjugation, in tenses formed from the first root, have, as connecting vowels, ia, ie, io, or iu, wherever the same occur in the fourth conjugation; but where they have only a single connecting vowel, it is the same which characterizes other verbs of the third conjugation. They are all conjugated like căpio.

Supine.

ACTIVE.

cap'-tum.

PASSIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ō, to take. Pres. Inf. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. Ind. cē'-pī.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ŏr, to be taken. Pres. Inf. că'-pī. Perf. Part. cap'-tŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-ō, că'-pis, că'-pit; P. căp'-i-mŭ

ca -pit;
P. căp'-i-mŭs,
căp'-i-tis,
că'-pi-unt.

S. că'-pi-ŏr, căp'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, căp'-ĭ-tŭr; P. căp'-ĭ-mŭr.

P. cap'-i-mur, ca-pim'-i-ni, ca-pi-un'-tur.

Imperfect.

S. că-pi-ē'-bam, că-pi-ē'-bās, că-pi-ē'-băt;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭs, că-pi-ē-bā'-tĭs, că-pi-ē'-bant. S. că-pi-ē'-băr, că-pi-ē-bā'-ris or -re, că-pi-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭr, că-pi-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, că-pi-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

S. că'-pi-am,
 că'-pi-ēs,
 că'-pi-et;
 P. că-pi-ē'-mŭs,
 că-pi-ē'-tĭs,

că'-pi-ent.

S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ē'-ris or -re, că-pi-ē'-tŭr;

P. că-pi-ē'-mŭr, că-pi-ēm'-ĭ-nī, că-pi-en'-tŭr.

The parts formed from the second and third roots being entirely regular, only a synopsis of them is given.

Perf. cē'-pī. Plup. cēp'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. cēp'-ĕ-rŏ.

Perf. cap'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī. Plup. cap'-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. cap'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ās, că'-pi-ăt;

P. că-pi-ā'-mus, că-pi-ā'-tis, că'-pi-ant, S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ā'-ris or -re, că-pi-ā'-tŭr;

P. că-pi-ā'-mŭr, că-pi-ām'-ĭ-nī, că-pĭ-an'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

S. căp'-ĕ-rem, căp'-ĕ-rēs, căp'-ĕ-rĕt; P. căp-ĕ-rē'-mŭs, căp-ĕ-rē'-tĭs, căp'-ĕ-rent.

S. căp'-ĕ-rĕr, căp-ĕ-rē'-ris or -rĕ, căp-ĕ-rē'-tŭr; P. cap-ĕ-rē'-mur, căp-ĕ-rēm'-ĭ-nī, căp-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perf. cēp'-ĕ-rim. Plup. cē-pis'-sem. Perf. cap'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. cap'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. cē-pis'-sĕ. Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ. Pres. că'-pī. Perf. cap'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se. Fut. cap'-tum i'-ri.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. că'-pi-ens. Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs. Perf. cap'-tus. Fut. că-pi-en'-dus.

GERUND.

G. că-pi-en'-dĭ, etc.

SUPINES.

Former. cap'-tum. | Latter. cap'-tu.

§ 160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏ. Pres. Inf. au-dī'-rě. Perf. Ind. au-dī'-vī. au-dī'-tum. Supine.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏr. Pres. Inf. au-dī'-rī. Perf. Part. au-dī'-tŭs.

PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I hear.

S. au'-di-ŏ, au'-dīs, au'dĭt;

P. au-dī'-mŭs, au'-dī'-tĭs, au'-di-unt. I am heard.

S. au'-di-ŏr, au-dī'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-dī'-tŭr;

P. au-dī'-mŭr, au-dīm'-ĭ-nī, au-di-un'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I was hearing.

S. au-di-ē'-bam, au-di-ē'-bās, au-di-ē'-băt:

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭs, au-di-ē-bā'-tĭs, au-di-ē'-bant. I was heard.

S. au-di-ē'-bār, au-di-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-di-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭr, au-di-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, au-di-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Futu

I shall or will hear.
S. au'-di-am,
au'-di-ēs,

au'-di-ĕt;

P. au-di-ē'-mŭs,
au-di-ē'-tis,
au'-di-ent.

Future.

I shall or will be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr, au-di-ë'-ris or -rĕ, au-di-ë'-tŭr:

P. au-di-ē'-mŭr, au-di-ēm'-i-nī, au-di-en'-tŭr.

I heard or have heard.

S. au-dī'-vī, au-dī-vis'-tī, au-dī'-vĭt;

P. au-dīv'-ĭ-mŭs, au-dī-vis'-tĭs, au-dī-vē'-runt or -rĕ.

Perfect.

I have been or was heard.

S. au-dī'-tūs sum or fu'-ī, au-dī'-tūs es or fu-is'-tī, au-dī'-tūs est or fu'-ĭt;

P. au-di'-tī sū'-mūs or fu'-ĭ-mūs, au-di'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, au-di'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rē.

I had heard.

S. au-dīv'-ĕ-ram, au-dīv'-ĕ-rās, au-dīv'-ĕ-răt;

P. au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-tīs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rant.

Pluperfect.

I had been heard.

S. au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, - au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-răt or fu'-ĕ-răt;

P. au-dī'-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, au-dī'-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, au-dī'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

PASSIVE.

I shall have heard.

- S. au-dīv'-ĕ-rŏ, au-dīv'-ĕ-rīs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rĭt;
- P. au-di-věr'-Ĭ-mŭs, au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

- S. au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, au-dī'-tus ĕ'-ris or fu'-ĕ-ris, au-di'-tus ĕ'-rit or fu'-ĕ-rit;
- P. au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tis, au-dī'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint-

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can hear.

- S. au'-di-am. au'-di-ās.
- au'-di-ăt; P. au-di-ā'-mus. au-di-ā'-tĭs, au'-di-ant.

I may or can be heard.

- S. au'-di-ăr. au-di-ā'-ris or -re, au-di-ā'-tŭr;
- P. au-di-ā'-mŭr, au-di-ām'-ĭ-nī, au-di-an'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should hear.

- S. au-dī'-rem, au-dī'-rēs, au-dī'-rĕt:
 - P. au-dī-rē'-mus, au-di-rē'-tis. au-dī'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be heard.

- S. au-dī'-rĕr, au-dī-rē'-rĭs or -rē, au-di-rē'-tŭr;
- P. au-dī-rē'-mur, au-di-rēm'-i-ni, au-dī-ren'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I may have heard.

- S. au-div'-ĕ-rim. au-div'-ĕ-rīs, au-div'-ĕ-rĭt:
- P. au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, au-di-věr'-Ĭ-tĭs. au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been heard.

- S. au-dī'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. au-dī'-tus sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, au-dī'-tŭs sĭt or fu'-ĕ-rĭt:
- P. au-dī'-tī sī'-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, au-dī'-tī sī'-tis or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-tis. au-dī'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have heard.

- S. au-dī-vis'-sem, au-dī-vis'-sēs. au-dī-vis'-sĕt;
- P. au-dī-vis-sē'-mŭs, au-di-vis-sē'-tĭs, au-dī-vis'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

- S. au-dī'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. au-dī'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, au-dī'-tŭs es'-sĕt or fu-is'-sĕt;
- P. au-dī'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, au-dī'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs, au-dī'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

PASSIVE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. au'-dī, hear thou;

P. au-dī'-tĕ, hear ye.

Fut. S. au-di'-to, thou shalt hear, au-di'-to, he shall hear; P. au-dī-tō'-tĕ, ye shall hear,

au-di-un'-to, they shall hear.

Pres. S. au-dī'-rĕ, be thou heard; P. au-dīm'-ĭ-nī, be ye heard.

Fut. S. au-dī'-tŏr, thou shalt be heard,

au-dī'-tŏr, he shall be heard;

P. (au-di-ēm'-ĭ-nī, ye shall be heard,)

au-dī-un'-tor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-dī'-rĕ, to hear. Perf. au-di-vis'-se, to have heard.

Fut. au-dī-tū'-rus es-se, to be about to hear.

Pres. au-dī'-rī, to be heard. Perf. au-dī'-tus es'-se or fu--is'se, to have been heard. Fut. au-di'-tum i'-ri, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ens, hearing.

Perf. au-dī'-tŭs, heard. Fut. au-di-tū'-rūs, about to hear. | Fut. au-di-en'-dūs, to be heard.

GERUND.

G. au-di-en'-dī, of hearing.

D. au-di-en'-dŏ, etc. Ac. au-di-en'-dum,

Ab. au-di-en'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

audiendus.

Former. au-dī'-tum, to hear. | Latter. au-dī'-tū, to be heard.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

rived

Active. Passive. Ind. pres. audio, audior. — imperf.
— fut.
Subj. pres. audiebam, audiebar. audiam, audiar. audiam,

andiar. — imperf. audirem, audirer. Imperat. pres. audi, audīre. — fut. audīto, auditor. Inf. pres. audīre, audīri.

audiens, Part. pres. - fut. Gerund. audiendi.

From the first root, and, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, audiv, are derived, audīt, are derived, Passive. Active.

Ind. perf. audīvi, audītus sum, etc. audiveram, audītus eram, etc. fut. perf. audivero, audītus ero, etc. Subj. perf. audivissem, audītus essem, etc. --- plup. Inf. perf. audivisse, audītus esse, etc.

From the third root, Inf. fut. auditūrus esse, audītum iri.

Part. fut. auditurus. - perf. audītus. Form. sup. audītum. Lat. sup. audītu.

DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 161. Deponent verbs are conjugated like the passive voice, and have also all the participles and participial formations of the active voice. Neuter deponent verbs, however, want the future passive participle, except that the neuter in dum is sometimes used impersonally. See § 184, 3.

The following is an example of an active deponent verb of the first conjugation:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tus, to admire.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rĭs, etc.	I admire, etc.
Imperf.	mī-rā'-băr, etc.	I was admiring.
Fut.	mī-rā'-bŏr,	I shall admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī,	I have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,	I had admired.
Fut. Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs ĕ'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro,	I shall have admired.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rĕr, mī-rē'-rĭs, etc.	I may admire, etc.
	mī-rā'-rĕr,	I would admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim,	I may have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-se	m. I would have admired.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mī-rā'-rĕ, admire thou; Fut. S. mī-rā'-tŏr, thou shalt admire,	P. mī-rām'-ĭ-nī, admire ye.
mī-rā'-tŏr, he shall admire;	

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī-rā'-rī,	to admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tus es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ,	to have admired.
Fut. Act.	mīr-ā-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ,	to be about to admire.
Fut. Pass	mī-rā'-tum ī'-rī.	to be about to be admired.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mī'-rans,	admiring.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs,	having admired.
Fut. Act.	mir-ā-tū'-rus,	about to admire.
Fut. Pass.	mī-ran'-dŭs,	to be admired.

GERUND.

G. mī-ran'-dī, of admiring, etc.

SUPINES.

Former. mī-rā'-tum, to admire. | Latter. mī-rā'-tū, to be admired.

REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATIONS.

14. of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

- fs 162. 1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and hird conjugations, in the earlier writers and in the poets, end in im, is, it, etc.; as, édim, édis, édii, edimus; comédim, comédis, comédint; for edam, etc. comédam, etc.; duim, duis, duit, duint; and perduim, perduis, perduit, perduint; for dem, etc. perdam, etc. from old forms duo and perduo, for do and perdo: so creduis, creduit, and also creduam, creduas, creduat, for credam, etc. from the old form creduo, for credo. The form in im, etc. was retained as the regular form is sim and velim, from sum and volo, and in their compounds.
- 2. The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation, sometimes, especially in the more ancient writers, ends in ibam and ibar, for ibbam and ibbar, and the future in ibo and ibor, for iam and iar; as, vestibat, Virg., largibar, Propert., for vestibat, largibar; scibo, opperibor, for sciam, opperiar. Ibam and ibo were retained as the regular forms of eo, queo, and nequeo. Cf. § 182.
- 3. The termination re, in the second person singular of the passive voice, is rare in the present, but common in the other simple tenses.
- 4. The imperatives of dico, dūco, fācio, and fēro, are usually written dic, duc, fac, and fer; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of fācio which change a into i; as, effice, confice; but calfāce also is found in Cicero; and in old writers dīcs, edice, addīce, indīce, dūce, abdūce, redūce, tradūce, and fāce. Inger for ingēre is rare. Scio has not sci, but its place is supplied by scilo, and scilote is preferred to scile.
- 5. In the imperative future of the passive voice, but especially of deponents, early writers and their imitators sometimes used the active instead of the passive form; as, arbitrāto, amplexāto, utito, nitto; for arbitrātor, etc.; and censento, utunto, tuento, etc. for censentor, etc.—In the second and third persons singular occur, also, forms in -mino; as, hortamino, veremino, fruimino; for hortātor, etc.
- 6. The syllable er was often added to the present infinitive passive by early writers and especially by the poets; as, amarier for amāri, dicier for dīci.

Of the Tenses formed from the Second Root.

- 7. (a.) When the second root ends in v, a syncopation and contraction often occur in the tenses formed from it, by omitting v, and sinking the first vowel of the termination in the final vowel of the root, when followed, in the fourth conjugation, by s, and in the other conjugations, by s or r; as, audissem for audivissem, amast for amavisti, implerent for impleverunt, noram and nosse for noveram and novisse.
- (b.) When the second root ends in iv, v is often omitted without contraction; as, audièro for audivèro; audiisse for audivisse.
- (c.) When this root ends in s or x, especially in the third conjugation, the syllables is, iss, and sis, are sometimes omitted in the termination of tenses derived from it; as, evasti for evasisti, extinxti for extinxisti, divisse for divisise; extinxem for extinxissem, surrece for surrexisse; accestis for accessistis, justi for jussisti; dixti for dixisti. So faxem for (facsissem, 1. e.) fecissem.
- (d.) In the perfect of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, a syncope sometimes occurs in the last syllable of the root and the following syllable of the termination, especially in the third person singular; as, fumat, audit, cupit; for fumavit, audivit, cupivit. So, also, but rarely, in the first person; as, sepēli, enarrāwimus; for sepelivi, enarrāwimus.
- 8. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in *ĕrs* is less common than that in *ērunt*, especially in prose.

9. Ancient forms of a future perfect in so, a perfect and plutive in sim and sem, and a perfect infinitive in se sometimes occur. in general, be formed by adding these terminations to the second i passive verb; as, recepso, emissim, ausim from the obsolete perfect, ausi, from ations confexim and promissem: divisse and promisse. But when the root enamed frequently when it ends in s, only o, im, em, and e, etc. are added; the jusso, dixis; intellexes, percepset; surrexe, sumse. V, at the end of the root, in the first conjugation, is changed into s; as, levasso, locassim. U, at the end of the root, in the second conjugation, is changed into es; as, habesso, licessit. Sometimes the vowel of the present is retained in these forms, though changed in the other parts derived from the second root; as, capso, faxo (facso), faxim (facsim).

Note. Faxo expresses determination, 'I will,' or, 'I am resolved, to make, cause,' etc. The subjunctive faxit, etc., expresses a solemn wish; as, distimmertales faxint. Ausim, etc. express doubt or hesitation, 'I might venture,' etc. The perfect in sim is used also in connection with the present subjunctive; as, quaso uti tu calamitates prohibesis, defendas, averruncesque. Cato.

10. In the ancient Latin a few examples occur of a future passive of similar form; as, turbassitur, jussitur, instead of turbātum fuērit, and jussus fuērit.—A future infinitive active in sēre is also found, in the first conjugation, which is formed by adding that termination to the second root, changing, as before, v into s; as, expugnassēre, impetrassēre, for expugnatūrum esse, etc.

Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

- 11. The supine in um, though called one of the principal parts of the verb, belongs in fact to very few verbs, the whole number which have this supine not amounting to three hundred. The part called in dictionaries the supine in um must therefore, in most cases, be considered as the neuter gender of the perfect participle.
- 12. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods, the participle is always in the nominative case, but it is used in both numbers, and in all genders, to correspond with the number and gender of the subject of the verb; as, amātus, -a, -um, est; amāti, -a, -a, sunt, etc.
- (1.) Fui, fueram, fuerim, fuissem, and fuisse, are seldom used in the compound tenses of deponent verbs, and not so often as sum, etc., in those of other verbs, but when used they have generally the same sense. It is to be remarked, however, that fui with the perfect participle usually denotes that which has been, but which no longer exists. In the pluperfect subjunctive, forem, etc., for essem, etc., are sometimes found.
- (2.) But as the perfect participle may be used in the sense of an adjective, expressing a permanent state, (see § 162, 22), if then connected with the tenses of sum its meaning is different from that of the participle in the same connection; epistola scripta est, when scripta is a participle, signifies, the letter has been written, but if scripta is an adjective, the meaning of the expression is, the letter is written, and epistola scripta fuit, in this case, would signify, the letter has been written, or, has existed as a written one, implying that it no longer exists.
- 13. The participles in the perfect and future infinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amātus, -a, -um, esse or fuisse; amātus, -am, esse or fuisse; amātus, -am, esse or fuisse; amātus, -am, -am, esse or fuisse; amātus, -am, -am, esse or fuisse; amātus, -am, -am, esse or fuisse; amātus, etc. are generally to be considered as participial adjectives.
- (1.) These participles in combination with esse are sometimes used as indeclinable; as, cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic. Ad me, mea Terentia, scribis, te vicum venditurum. Id.

Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the verb sum, denotes either intention, or being upon the point of doing something. This form of the verb is called the active periphrastic conjugation.

REMARK 1. As the performance of the act depends either on the will of the subject, on that of others, or upon circumstances, we may say, in English, in the first case, 'I intend,' and in the others, 'I am to,' or 'I am about to' (be or do any thing).

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amatūrus sum, I am about to love.
Imperf. amatūrus eram, I was about to love.
I was about to love.
I shall be about to love.
I was or have been about to love.
Plup. amatūrus fuĕram, I had been about to love.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amatūrus sim, I may be about to love.

Imperf. amatūrus essem, I would be about to love.

Perf. amatūrus fuĕrim, I may have been about to love.

Plup. amatūrus fuissem, I would have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amatūrus esse, to be about to love. Perf. amatūrus fuisse, to have been about to love.

REM. 2. Fuĕro is scarcely used in connection with the participle in rus.

REM. 3. Amatūrus sim and amatūrus essem serve also as subjunctives to the future amābo. The infinitive amatūrus fuisse answers to the English, 'I should have loved,' so that in hypothetical sentences it supplies the place of an infinitive of the pluperfect subjunctive.

REM. 4. In the passive, the fact that an act is about to be performed is expressed by a longer circumlocution; as, in eo est, or futūrum est, ut epistôla scribātur, a letter is about to be written. So in eo erat, etc., through all the tenses.

15. The participle in dus, with the verb sum, expresses necessity or propriety; as, amandus sum, I must be loved, or deserve to be loved. With the various moods and tenses of sum, it forms a passive periphrastic conjugation;—thus:

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amandus sum,
Imperf. amandus ĕram,
Fut. amandus ĕro,
Perf. amandus fui,
Plup. amandus fuĕram,
Fut. Perf. amandus fuĕro.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amandus sim,
Imperf. amandus essem,
Perf. amandus fuĕrim,
Plup. amandus fuissem.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amandus esse, Perf. amandus fuisse. REM. 5. The neuter of the participle in dus with est and the dative of a person, expresses the necessity of performing the action on the part of that person; as, milit scribendum est, I must write, etc., and so through all the tenses.

Participles.

16. The following perfect participles of neuter verbs, like those of active deponents, are translated by active participles:—cænātus, having supped; pātus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes jurātus, having sworn. So also adultus, coalitus, conspirātus, interitus, occāsus, obsolētus, and crētus.

For the active meaning of osus and its compounds, see § 183, 1.

17. (a.) The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus libertātem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

So abominātus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestātus, dignātus, dimensus, effātus, emensus, ementītus, emeritus, expertus, exsecrātus, interpretatus, largitus, machinātus, meditātus, mercātus, metātus, oblitus, opinātus, orsus, pactus, partītus, perfunctus, periclitātus, pollicitus, populātus, depopulātus, stipūlātus, testātus, ultus, venerātus.

- (b.) The participle in dus, of deponent verbs, is commonly passive.
- 18. The perfect participles of neuter passive verbs have the signification of the active voice; as, gavīsus, having rejoiced. But ausus is used both in an active and a passive sense.
- 19. The genitive plural of participles in rus is seldom used, except that of futurus. Venturōrum is found in Ovid, exiturārum, transiturārum and periturōrum in Seneca, and moriturōrum in Augustine.
- 20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the gerund and future passive participle (including deponents) sometimes end in undum and undus, instead of endum and endus, especially when i precedes; as, faciundum, audiundum, scribundus. Potior has usually potiundus.
- 21. Many present and perfect participles are compounded with in, signifying not, whose verbs do not admit of such composition; they thus become adjectives; as, insciens, ignorant; imparātus, unprepared.
- 22. Participles, when they do not express distinctions of time, become adjectives, and as such are compared; as, amans, loving; amantior, amantissimus. They sometimes also become substantives; as, præfectus, a commander; ausum, an attempt; commissum, an offence.

Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of participles, ātus, ātus, and ūtus, are yet adjectives; as, alātus, winged; turrītus, turreted, etc. See § 128, 7.

GENERAL RULES OF CONJUGATION.

§ 163. 1. Verbs which have a in the first root have it also in the third, even when it is changed in the second; as, $f\check{a}cio$, factum; $h\check{a}beo$, $hab\check{t}tum$.

2. The connecting vowel is often omitted in the second root, and in such cases, if v follows, it is changed into u. This happens in most verbs of the second conjugation.

REMARK. Some verbs of the first, second, and third conjugations prefix to the second root their initial consonant with the vowel which follows it, or with \check{e} ; as, curro, $c\check{u}curri$; fallo, $f\check{e}felli$. This prefix is called a reduplication.

NOTE 1. Spondeo and sto lose s in the second syllable, making spopondi and steti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see §§ 165, R. 2; 168, N. 2; 171, Exc. 1, (b.)

- 3. Verbs which want the second root commonly want the third root also.
- 4. Compound verbs form their second and third roots like the simple verbs of which they are compounded; as, audio, audīvi, audītum; exaudīo, exaudīvi, exaudītum.
- NOTE 2. Some compound verbs, however, are defective, whose simples are complete, and some are complete, whose simples are defective.
- Exc. 1. Compound verbs omit the reduplication; but the compounds of do, sto, disco, posco, and some of those of curro, retain it.
- Exc. 2. Verbs which, in composition, change a into e in the first root, (see § 189, 1,) retain e in the second and third roots of the compound; as, scando, scandi, scansum; descendo, descendi, descensum.
- Exc. 3. (a.) When a, æ, or e, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into i, (see § 189, 2,) the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple verb is a dissyllable; as, hābeo, hābui, hābītum; prohībeo, prohībui, prohībītum.
- (b.) But if the third root is a monosyllable, the second root of the compound has usually the same vowel as that of the simple, but sometimes changes a or e into i, and the third root has e; as, făcio, fēci, factum; conficio, confēci, confectum; těneo, těnui, tentum; retineo, retinui, retentum; răpio, răpui, raptum; abripio, abripui, abreptum.

Note 3. The compounds of cădo, ăgo, frango, pango, and tango, retain a in the third root. See § 172.

Exc. 4. The compounds of părio, (ĕre), and some of the compounds of do and căbo, are of different conjugations from their simple verbs. See do, căbo and părio in §§ 165 and 172.

A few other exceptions will be noticed in the following lists.

FORMATION OF SECOND AND THIRD ROOTS.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 164. In regular verbs of this conjugation, the second root ends in $\bar{a}v$, and the third in $\bar{a}t$; as, amo, amāvi, amātum.

The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

Note. In this and subsequent lists, those verbs which are marked * are said to have no perfect participle; those marked † to have no present participle. A dash(—) after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and dus, and the supines in um and u which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters r, d., m., and u. Abundo, for example, has no perfect participle, no supine, no participle in dus; but it has a present participle, and a participle in rus.

In the lists of irregular verbs, those compounds only are given, whose conjugation dif-

fers from that of their simples.

When p, is subjoined to a deponent verb, it denotes that some of the parts which have commonly an active meaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called *common*. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

*Abundo, r. to overflow. Accūso, m.r.d. to accuse. † Adumbro, to delineate. Ædifico, r. d. to build. Æquo, r. d. to level. Æstimo, r. d. to value. *Ambŭlo, m. d. to walk. Amo, r. d. to love. † Amplio, d. to enlarge. Appello, d. to call. Apto, d. to fit. Aro, r. d. to plough. *† Ausculto, to listen. *† Autumo, to assert. †Bāsio, -, d. to kiss. *BeHo, m. r. d. to wage war. † Beo, to bless. *Boo, to bellow. †Brěvio, to shorten. †Cæco, to blind. †Cælo, to carve. † Calceo, d. to shoe. * † Calcitro, to kick. Canto, m. to sing. Capto, m. r. d. to seize. † Castigo, m. d. to chastise. Celebro, d. to celebrate. Celo, d. to conceal. Cesso, d. to cease. Certo, r. d. to strive. Clāmo, to shout. Cogito, d. to think. Concilio, r. d. to conciliate. Considero, r. d. to con-Cremo, d. to burn .- concremo, r. † Creo, r. d. to create. Crucio, d. to torment. Culpo, r. d. to blame. †Cuneo, d. to wedge in. Curo, r. d. to care for. Damno, m. r. d. to condemn. Decoro, d. to adorn. *† Delīneo, to delineate.

Desidero, r. d. to desire.

Destino, d. to design. Dico, m. r. d. to dedicate. Dicto, to dictate. †Dolo, to hew. Dono, r. d. to bestow. Duplico, r. d. to double. Düro, r. to harden. †Effigio, to portray. †Enucleo, to explain. Equito, to ride. Erro, to wander. Existimo, u.r.d. to think. Exploro, m. d. to search. Exsulo, m. r. to be banished. Fabrico, d. to frame. †Fatīgo, r. d. to weary. Festino, r. to hasten. Firmo, r. d. to strengthen. Flagito, m. d. to demand. *Flagro, r. to be on fire .conflagro, r.-deflagro. Flo, d. to blow. Formo, r. d. to form. Foro, d. to bore. †Fraudo, d. to defraud. †Frēno, to bridle. †Frio, —, to crumble. Fugo, r. d. to put to flight. †Fundo, r. to found. †Furio, —, to madden. †Găleo, —, to put on a helmet. Gesto, d. to bear. Glăcio, —, to congeal. Gravo, d. to weigh down. Gusto, d. to taste. Habito, m. d. to dwell. *Hālo, —, to breathe. Hiemo, m. to winter. *Hio, d. to gape. †Humo, r. d. to bury. Ignoro, r. d. to be ignorant of. Impero, r. d. to command. †Impetro, r. d. to obtain. Inchoo, r. to begin. Indago, r. d. to trace out.

Indico, m. r. d. to show. †Inebrio,-, to inebriate. Initio, to initiate. Inquino, to pollute. Instauro, d. to renew. Intro, r. d. to enter. Invito, d. to invite. Irrito, r. d. to irritate. Itero, u. d. to do again. Jacto, r. d. to throw. Judico, r. d. to judge. Jugo, d. to couple. Jugulo, m. d. to butcher. Jūro, d. to swear. Laboro, r. d. to labor. Lacero, d. to tear. *Lacto, to suckle. † Lănio, d. to tear in pieces. Latro, to bark. Laudo, r. d. to praise. Laxo, d. to loose. †Lēgo, to depute. Levo, r. d. to lighten. Libero, r. d. to free. Libo, d. to pour out. Ligo, to bind. †Liquo, d. to melt. Lito, to appease. Loco, r. d. to place. Lustro, d. to survey. Luxurio, to be luxuriant. Macto, d. to sacrifice. Macŭlo, to spot, stain. Mando, r. d. to command. Manduco, to chew. *Māno, to flow. Matūro, d. to ripen. Memoro, u. d. to tell. *Meo, to go. *Migro, u. r. d. to depart. *Milito, m. r. to serve as a soldier. † Minio, d. to paint red. Ministro, d. to serve. Mitigo, d. to pacify. Monstro, r. to show .-†demonstro, d. Mūto, r. d. to change.

Narro, r. d. to tell. Nato, m. r. to swim. *Nauseo, to be sea-sick. † Navigo, r. d. to sail. Nāvo, r. d. to perform. Něgo, m. r. d. to deny. *No, to swim. Nomino, r. d. to name. Noto, d. to mark. Novo, r. d. to renew. Nūdo, d. to make bare. Nuncupo, r. d. to name. Nuntio, m. r. to tell.renuntio, d. *Nūto, r. to nod. Obsecro, m. r. d. to beseech. Obtrunco, r. to kill. Onero, r. d. to load. Opto, d. to wish. †Orbo, r. to bereave. Orno, r. d. to adorn. Oro, m. r. d. to beg. Pāco, d. to subdue. Paro, r. d. to prepare.
compăro, d. to compare.
Patro, r. d. to perform.
*Pecco, r. d. to şer form.
†Pio, d. to propitate.
Plāco, r. d. to appease.
Plōro, m. d. to bewail. Porto, u. r. d. to carry. Postŭlo, m. r. d. to demand. Privo, d. to deprive. Probo, m. u. r. d. to approve.-comprobo, m. Profiigo, d. to rout. Propero, d. to hasten. *†Propino, to drink to. Propitio, d. to appease. Pugno, r. d. to fight. Pulso, d. to beat. Purgo, u. r. d. to cleanse.

Pŭto, d. to reckon. Quasso, d. to shake. Rádio, to emit rays. Rapto, d. to drag away. Recupero, m. r. d. to re-Recūso, r. d. to refuse. Redundo, to overflow. Regno, r. d. to rule. †Repudio, r. d. to reject. Resero, d. to unlock. *†Retālio, —, to retaliate. Rigo, to water. Rŏgo, m. r. d. to ask. Roto, to whirl around. Sacrifico, m. to sacrifice. Sacro, d. to consecrate. †Sagīno, d. to fatten. Salto, r. to dance. Salūto, m. r. d. to salute. Sāno, r. d. to heal. Sătio, to satiate. †Saturo, to fill. Saucio, d. to wound. *Secundo, to prosper. Sēdo, m. d. to allay. Servo, r. d. to keep. *†Sibilo, to hiss. Sicco, d. to dry. Signo, r. d. to mark out .assigno, m. Simulo, r. d. to pretend. Socio, d. to associate. *Somnio, to dream. Specto, m. r. d. to behold. Spēro, r. d. to hope. *Spiro, to breathe.-conspīro. — exspīro, r. suspīro, d. Spolio, m. d. to rob. Spumo, to foam. Stillo, to drop.

Sūdo, to sweat. Suffoco, to strangle. Sugillo, d. to taunt. Supero, r. d. to overcome. Suppedito, to afford. *Supplico, m. to supplicate. *Susurro, to whisper. Tardo, to delay. Taxo, d. to rate. Teméro, d. to defile. Tempero, r. d. to temper. -obtempero, r. to obey. Tento, m. r. d. to try. Terebro, to bore. Termino, r. d. to limit. Titubo, to stagger. Tolero, u. r. d. to bear. Tracto, u. d. to handle. *†Tripudio, to dance. Triumpho, r. to triumph. Trucido, r. d. to kill. Turbo, d. to disturb. *Văco, to be at leisure. *Vapŭlo, m. d. to be beat-en. Cf. § 142, 3. Vărio, to diversify. Vasto, d. to lay waste. Vellico, to pluck. Verběro, r. d. to beat. *Vestigo, to search for. Vexo, d. to tease. Vibro, d. to brandish. Vigilo, to watch. Violo, m. r. d. to violate. Vitio, d. to vitiate. Vito, u. d. to shun. Ulŭlo, to howl. Umbro, r. to shade. Voco, r. d. to call. *Volo, to fly. Voro, r. to devour. Vulgo, r. d. to publish. Vulněro, d. to wound.

The following verbs of the first conjugation are either irregular or defective.

Stimulo, to goad.

Stipo, to stuff.

*Crěpo, crepui, to make a noise. *discrepo, -ui, or -avi. increpo, -ui or -āvi, -itum or -ātum. *†percrepo, -. *trecrepo, -

*Cubo, cubui, (perf. subj. cubaris; inf. cubasse), cubitum (sup.), to recline. incubo, -ui or āvi, d. Those compounds of cubo which take m before b, are of the third conjugation.

So circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo, and

venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation. See § 163, Exc. 1.

Domo, domui, domitum, r. d. to tame. Frico, fricui, frictum or fricatum, d. to rub. confrico, -, -ātum. So infrico. defrico, --, -ātum or -ctum.

Jūvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help. adjūvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d. also adjuvatūrus. *Labo, labasse, to totter

Lăvo, lāvi, rar. lăvāvi, lavātum, lautum or lōtum; (sup.) lautum or lavātum, lavatūrus, d. to wash. Lāvo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.

*Mico, micui, d. to glitter. dimico, -āvi or -ui, -atūrus. *emico, -ui, -atūrus. *intermico, —. *promico, —, d.

Neco, necāvi or necui, necātum, r. d. to kill. eneco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum, or -ctum, d. †interneco, —, -ātum.

*†Nexo, —, to tie.
Plico, —, plicātum, to fold. duplico,
-āvi, -ātum, r. d. multiplico and replico have -āvi, -ātum. *supplico,
-āvi, m. r. applico, -āvi or -ui,
-ātum or -ītum, -itūrus. So implico,
—complico, -ui, -ītum or ātum.
explico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ītum,
-atūrus or -ītūrus.

Pōto, potāvi, potātum or pōtum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink. †epōto, -āvi, -um. —*perpōto, -āvi.

Seco, secui, sectum, secatūrus, d. to

cut.—*circumsĕco, —. *intersĕco, —, d. *persēco, -ui. præsĕco, -ui, -tum or -ātum. So resĕco, d.

*Sŏno, sonui, -atūrus, d. to sound. *consŏno, -tti. So ex-, in-, per-, præ-sŏno. *resŏno, -āvi. *assŏno, —. So circumsŏno and dissŏno.

*Sto, stěti, statūrus, to stand. *antesto, stěti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.—Its compounds with monosylludic prepositions have střti; as, *consto, -střti, -statūrus. So exsto, insto, obsto, persto. *præsto, -střti, -státūrus, d. *adsto or asto, -střti, -státūrus. *prosto, -střti. So resto, restřti: but subj. perf. restavěrit, Propert, 2, 34, 53. *disto, —. So substo and supersto.

*Tŏno, tonui, to thunder. So circumtŏno. attŏno, -ui, -ĭtum. intŏno, -ui, -ātum. *retŏno, —.

Věto, vetui, rarely āvi, vetitum, to forbid.

Remark 1. The principal irregularity, in verbs of the first and second conjugations, consists in the omission of the connecting vowel in the second root, and the change of the long vowels \bar{a} and \bar{e} in the third root into i. The v remaining at the end of the second root, when it follows a consonant, is prenounced as u; as, cubo, $(cub\bar{a}vi$, by syncope cubvi), i. e. cubui; $(cub\bar{a}tum$, by change of the connecting vowel, $cub\bar{u}um$. Sometimes in the first conjugation, and very frequently in the second, the connecting vowel is omitted in the third root also; as, juvo, $(\bar{a}re)$ $j\bar{u}vi$, $j\bar{u}tum$; $t\bar{e}neo$, $(\bar{e}re)$ $t\bar{e}nui$, tentum. In the second conjugation several verbs whose general root ends in d and g, and a few others of different terminations, form either their second or third root or both, like verbs of the third conjugation, by adding s; as, rideo, risi, risum.

REM. 2. The verbs of the first conjugation whose perfects take a redu plication are do, sto, and their compounds.

REM. 3. The following verbs in eo are of the first conjugation, viz. beo, calceo, creo, cineo, enucleo, illáqueo, collineo, delineo, meo, nauseo, screo; eo and its compounds are of the fourth.

§ 166. All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular, and are conjugated like mīror, § 161; as,

Abominor, d. to abhor.
Adominor, d. to flatter.
Æmulor, d. to rival.
Aucillor, to be a handmaid.
*Apricor, to bask in the
sun.
Arbitror, r. d. to think.
Aspernor, d. p. to despise.
Aucupor, r. p. to hunt
after.
Auxilior, p. to help.
Aversor, d. to dislike.
Bacchor, p. to revel.
Calumnior, to censure unfairly.

Causor, to allege.

*Comissor, m. to revel.
Comitor, p. to accompany.
Concionor, to harangue.
*Confabulor, m. to converse together.
Conor, d. to endeavor.
†Conspicor, to see.
Contemplor, d. p. to view attentively.
Criminor, m. p. to complain of.
Cunctor, d. p. to delay.
Depricor, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.

*†Diglădior, to fence.
Dignor, d. p. to deem worthy.
Domînor, p. to rule.
Epülor, r. d. to feast.
*Famulor, m. to wait on.
Fātur, (defect.) u. d. p. to speak. See § 183, 6.
†Fērior, r. to keep holiday.
*Frumentor, m. to forage.
Fūror, m. to steal.
Glörior, r. d. to boast.
Gratilor, m. d. to con-

gratulate.

Hariolor, to practise soothsaying. Hortor, d. to encourage. Imitor, u. r. d. to imitate. Indignor, d. to disdain. Infitior, d. to deny. Insector, to pursue. Insidior, r. d. to lie in wait for. Interpretor, p. to explain. Jaculor, p. to hurl. Jocor, to jest. Lætor, r. d. p. to rejoice. Lamentor, d. p. to bewail. *†Lignor, m. to gather wood. Luctor, d. to wrestle. Medicor, r. d. p. to heal. Meditor, p. to meditate.

Mercor, m. r. d. p. to buy.

Miror, u. r. d. to admire. Miseror, d. to pity.

Moderor, u. d. to govern.

Minor, to threaten.

Modulor, d. p. to modulate. Mŏror, r. d. to delay. †Mūtuor, p. to borrow. Negōtior, r. to traffic. *†Nūgor, to trifle. Obsonor, m. to cater. Obtestor, p. to beseech. Operor, to work. Opinor, u. r. d. to think. Opitulor, m. to help. †Otior, to be at leisure. Pabulor, m. d. to graze. Pālor, to wander about. Percontor, m. to inquire. Periclitor, d. p. to try. † Piscor, m. to fish. Populor, r. d. p. to lay waste. Prædor, m. p. to plunder. Prěcor, m. u. r. d. to pray. Prœlior, to fight.
Recordor, d. to recollect.
Rīmor, d. to search. Rixor, to quarrel.

*Rusticor, to live in the country. Sciscitor, m. p. to inquire. *Scitor, m. to ask. Scrutor, p. to search. Solor, d. to comfort. Spătior, to walk about. Speculor, m. r. d. to spy †Stipulor, p. to bargain, stipulate. †Suāvior, d. to kiss. Suspicor, to suspect. Testificor, p. to testify. Testor, d. p. to testify. So detestor. Tutor, to defend. Văgor, to wander. Veneror, d. p. to venerate, worship. Vēnor, m. p. to hunt. Versor, to be employed. Vocif eror, to bawl.

Note. Some deponents of the first conjugation are derived from nouns, and signify being or practising that which the noun denotes; as, ancillāri, to be a handmaid; hariolāri, to practise soothsaying; from ancilla and hariolus.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

§ 167. Verbs of the second conjugation end in co, and form their second and third roots in u and it; as, moneo, monui, monřtum.

The following list contains most of the regular verbs of this conjugation, and many also which want the second and third roots:-

*Aceo, to be sour.

*Agreo, -, to be sick.

- *Albeo, —, to be white. *Arceo, d. to drive away; part. adj. arctus or artus. The compounds change a into e; as, coerceo, d. to restrain. exerceo, r. d. to exer-
- *Areo, to be dry. *Aveo, -, to covet.
- *Caleo, r. to be warm. *Calleo, -, to be hardened. *percalleo, to know
- *Calveo, -, to be bald.
- *Camleo, to be white. *Cāneo, to be houry.
- *Ceveo, -, to fawn.
- *Cáreo, r. d. to want.

- *Clareo, -, to be bright.
- *Clueo, —, to be famous. *Denseo, —, to thicken. *Diribeo, —, to sort the
- voting tablets. *Dŏleo, r. d. to grieve.
- *Egeo, r. to want.
- *Emineo, to rise above.
- *Flacceo, to droop. *Flaveo, —, to be yellow. *Floreo, to blossom.
- *Frigeo, —, to be fetid. *Frigeo, —, to be cold. *Frondeo, -, to bear
- leaves. Habeo, r. d. to have. The
- as ad-, ex-, pro-hibeo. cohibeo, d. to restrain. inhibeo, d. to hinder.
- compounds, except posthabeo, change a into 1;

- *tperhibeo, d. to report. † posthabeo, to postpone. præbeo, (for præhib-eo), r. d. to afford.
- *præhibeo, -. debeo, (for dehabeo), r. d. to owe.
- *Hěbeo, —, to be dull. *Horreo, d. to be rough.
- *Hūmeo, —. to be moist. *Jāceo, r. to lie.
- *Lacteo, —, to suck. *Langueo, —, to be faint.
- *Lăteo, to lie hid. *Lenteo, -, to be slow.
- *Liceo, to be valued.
- *Līveo, —, to be livid. *Māceo, —, to be lean. *Mădeo, to be wet.
- *Mæreo, -, to grieve. Měreo, r. to deserve.

†commereo, to fully deserve. †demereo, d. to eurn. †eměreo, to serve out one's time. * perměreo, -, to go through service. proměreo, to deserve.

Moneo, r. d. to advise. admoneo, m. r. d. to remind. commoneo, to impress upon. præmöneo, to forewarn.

*Muceo, —, to be mouldy. *Nigreo, —, to be black.

*Niteo, to shine. Noceo, m. r. to hurt.

*Olco, to smell. *Palleo, to be pale. *Pāreo, m. r. d. to obey. *Păteo, to be open.

Placeo, to please. *Polleo, -, to be able. *Pūteo, to stink. *Putreo, to be putrid.

*Renīdeo, —, to glitter. *Rigeo, to be stiff. *Rnbeo, to be red.

*Scateo, -, to gush forth. *Sěneo, -, to be old. *Sileo, d. to be silent.

*Sordeo, -, to be filthy. *Splendeo, -, to shine.

*Squāleo, —, to be foul. *Strideo, —, to creak. *Studeo, d. to study. *Stupeo, to be amazed.

*Sueo, -, to be wont. Tăceo, r. d. to be silent.

*Tèpeo, to be warm. Terreo, d. to terrify. So deterreo, to deter. †abdeterreo, to deter. †ab-sterreo, to deter. †conterreo, †exterreo, †per-

terreo, to frighten. *Timeo, d. to fear. *Torpeo, —, to be stiff. *Tumeo, to swell.

*Văleo, r. to be able. *Vegeo, -, to arouse. *Vieo, -, to plait. Pa. viētus, shriveled. *Vigeo, to flourish.

*Vireo, to be green. *Uveo, -, to be moist.

The following verbs of the second conjugation are irregular in their second or third roots or in both.

Note 1. As the proper form of verbs of the first conjugation is, o, āvi, ātum, of the fourth io, ivi, itum, so that of the second would be eo, evi, etum. Very few of the latter conjugation, however, retain this form, but most of them, as noticed in § 165, Rem. I, drop in the second root the connecting vowel, \tilde{e} , and those in veo drop $v\tilde{e}$; as, $c\tilde{a}veo$, $(c\tilde{a}v\tilde{e}vi)$, $c\tilde{a}vi$, $(c\tilde{a}v\tilde{e}um)$ or $c\tilde{a}rium$) cautums. Others, imitating the form of those verbs of the third conjugation whose general root ends in a consonant, add s to form the second and third roots. Cf. § 165, Rem. 1, and §171.

Note 2. Four verbs of the second conjugation take a reduplication in the parts formed from the second root, viz. mordeo, pendeo, spondeo, and tondeo. See § 163, Rem.

Aboleo, -ēvi, -Itum, r. d. to efface. *Algeo, alsi, to be cold.

Ardeo, arsi, arsum, r. to burn.

Audeo, ansus sum, (rarely ausi, whence ausim, § 183, R. 1,) r. d. to dare.

Augeo, auxi, auctum, r. d. to increase. Caveo, cavi, cautum, m. d. to beware. Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think. recenseo, -ui, -um or -ītum. *per-censeo, -ui. *succenseo, -ui, d.

Cieo, cīvi, citum, to excite. There is a cognate form, cio, of the fourth conjugation, both of the simple verb and of its compounds. The penult of the participles excitus and concitus is common, and that of accitus is always long.

*Conniveo, -nivi, to wink at. Dēleo, -ēvi, -ētum, d. to blot out. Doceo, docui, doctum, d. to teach.

*Faveo, favi, fautūrus, to favor. *Ferveo, ferbui, to boil. Sometimes fervo, vi, of the third conjugation. Fleo, flevi, fletum, r. d. to weep.

Foveo, fovi, fotum, d. to cherish.

*Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulgo, of the third conjugation, is also in use. Gaudeo, gavīsus sum, r. to rejoice. § 142, 2.

*Hæreo, hæsi, hæsūrus, to stick. ad-, co-, in-, ob- hæreo; but *subhæ-

Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, r. d. to indulge.

Jubeo, jussi, jussum, r. d. to order. *Luceo, luxi, to shine. polluceo, -luxi. -luctum,

*Lūgeo, luxi, d. to mourn.

*Maneo, mansi, mansum, m. r. d. to remain.

Misceo, miscui, mistum or mixtum. mistūrus, d. to mix.

Mordeo, momordi, morsum, d. to bite. remordeo, -di, -morsum, r. Moveo, movi, motum, r. d. to move.

Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, d. to soothe. permulceo, permulsi, permulsum and permulctum, to rub gently.

*Mulgeo, mulsi or mulxi, to milk. emulgeo, -, emulsum, to milk out.

Neo, nēvi, nētum, to spin.

*Păveo, păvi, d. to fear. *Pendeo, pependi, to hang. *impendeo, -. propendeo, -, propensum. Pleo, (obsolete). compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to fill. So the other compounds.

Prandeo, prandi, pransum, r. to dine. Rīdeo, rīsi, rīsum, m. r. d. to laugh.

*Sědeo, sēdi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds with monosyllabic prepositions change è into I, in the first root; as, insideo, insēdi, insessum. *dissideo, -sēdi. So præsideo, and rarely circumsideo.

Soleo, solitus sum and rarely solui, to be accustomed. § 142, 2. *Sorbeo, sorbui, to suck in. So *exsorbeo: but *resorbeo, -. *absorbeo, -sorbui or -sorpsi.

Spondeo, spopondi, sponsum, to promise. See § 163, Rem.

*Strideo, idi, to whiz.

Suadeo, suasi, suasum, r. d. to advise. Těneo, těnui, tentum, r. d. to hold. The compounds change & into i in the first and second roots; as, detineo, detinui, detentum. *attineo, -tinui. So pertineo.

Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergo, of the third conjugation, is also in use. Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to shear. The

compounds have the perfect tondi. Torqueo, torsi, tortum, d. to twist. Torreo, torrui, tostum, to roast.

*Turgeo, tursi, to swell.

*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge. Video, vidi, visum, m. u. r. d. to see. Voveo, vovi, votum, d. to vow.

§ 169. Impersonal Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Decet, decuit, it becomes. Libet, libuit or libitum est, it pleases, is agreeable.

Licet, licuit or licitum est, it is lawful, or permitted.

Liquet, liquit, it is clear, evident.

Miseret, miseruit or miseritum est, it moves to pity; miseret me, I pity. Oportet, oportuit, it behooves.

Piget, piguit or pigitum est, d. it troubles, grieves.

Pænitet, pænituit, pænitūrus, d. it repents; pænitet me, I regret. Pudet, puduit or pudituin est, d.; it

shames; pudet me, I am ashamed. Tædet, tæduit or tæsum est, it disgusts or wearies. pertædet, pertæsum est.

Note. Lubet is sometimes written for libet, especially in the comic writers.

§ 170. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Făteor, fassus, r. d. p. to confess. The compounds change à into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, confiteor, confessus, d. p. to acknowledge. *†diffiteor, to deny. profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare.
Liceor, licitus, to bid a price. *Mědeor, d. to cure. Měreor, meritus, to deserve. Misereor, miseritus or misertus, to pity. Polliceor, pollicitus, p. to promise. Reor, ratus, to think, suppose. Tueor, tuitus, d. p. to protect. Věreor, veritus, d. p. to fear.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

§ 171. In the third conjugation, when the first root ends with a consonant, the second root is regularly formed by adding s; when it ends with a vowel, the first and second roots are the same: the third root is formed by adding t; as, carpo, carpsi, carptum; arguo, argui, argūtum.

In annexing s and t, certain changes occur in the final consonant of the root :--

1. The palatals c, g, qu, and also h, at the end of the first root, form with s the double letter x in the second root; in the third root, c remains, and the others are changed into c before t; as, dico, (dicsi, i. e.), dixi, dictum; rego, <math>(regsi, i. e.), rcxi, rectum; viho, vexi, vectum; cóquo, coxi, coctum.

§ 171.

Note. Fluo and struo form their second and third roots after the analogy of verbs whose first root ends in a palatal or h.

2. B is changed into p before s and t; as, scrībo, scripsi, scriptum.

3. D and t, before s, are either dropped, or changed into s; as, claudo, clausi; $c\bar{c}do$, cessi; mitto, $m\bar{s}s$. Cf. § 56, I, Rem. 1. After m, p is sometimes inserted before s and t; as, $s\bar{u}mo$, sumpsi, sumptum. R is changed to s before s and t in $g\bar{e}ro$ and $\bar{u}ro$.

4. Some other consonants are dropped, or changed into s, in certain verbs.

Exc. 1. Many verbs whose first root ends in a consonant, do not add s to form the second root.

(a.) Of these, some have the second root the same as the first, but the vowel of the second root, if a monosyllable, is long; as,

Scăbo, Solvo, Bĭbo. Excūdo, Mando, Verro, Ico, Edo, Fŏdio, Lambo, Prehendo, Scando, Strido, Verto, Emo, Fŭgio, Lĕgo, Psallo, Sīdo, Tollo, Volvo; to which add the compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and nuo.

(b.) Some make a change in the first root. Of these, some change a vowel, some drop a consonant, some prefix a reduplication, others admit two or more of these changes; as,

 Ago, ēgi.
 Căpio, cēpi.
 Făcio, fēci.

 Findo, fīdi.
 Frango, frēgi.
 Fundo, fūdi.

 Jācio, jēci.
 Linquo, līqui.
 Rumpo, rūpi.

 Scindo, scidi.
 Sisto, stīti.
 Vinco, vici.

Those which have a reduplication are

 Cădo, cčeidi.
 Cædo, cčeīdi.
 Căno, cčeĭni.

 Curro, cŭcurri.
 Disco, didici.
 Fallo, fčfelli.

 Păgo, (obs.) pēpĭgi
 Parco, pēperci.
 Pāro, pēpēri.

 and pēgi.
 Pēdo, pēpēdil.
 Pello, pēpūli.

 Pendo, pēpendi.
 Posco, pōposci.
 Pungo, pīpūgi.

 Tango, tětīgi.
 Tendo, tětendi.
 Tundo, tǔtūdi.

Exc. 2. Some, after the analogy of the second conjugation, add u to the first root of the verb; as,

Alo, alui, etc. Consŭlo, Gemo, Trěmo, Răpio, Cŏlo. Depso, Gčno, (obs.) Strěpo, Vole, Molo, Texo, Vŏmo. Compesco, Fremo. Měto, messui; and pōno, pŏsui; add su, with a change in the root.

Exc. 3. The following, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, add iv to the first root:—

Arcesso, Cŭpio, Lăcesso, Rŭdo, Těro, dropping č. Căpesso, Incesso, Peto, Quæro, with a change of r into s.

Exc. 4. The following add v, with a change in the root; those in no and sco dropping n and sc, and those having er before n changing it to $r\bar{e}$ or $r\bar{a}$:—

Cresco, Pasco, Scisco, Sperno, Lino, Sĕro, Nosco, Quiesco, Cerno, Sterno; Sino, to sow.

Exc. 5. (a.) The third root of verbs whose first root ends in d or t, and some in g, add s, instead of t, to the root, either dropping the d, t, and g, or changing them into s; as, claudo, clausum; $d\bar{e}fendo$, $d\bar{e}fensum$; $c\bar{e}do$, cessum; flecto, flexum; figo, fixum. But the compounds of do add $\bar{u}t$; as, perdo, $perd\bar{u}tum$.

(b.) The following, also, add s, with a change of the root:— Fallo, Excello, Pello, Spargo, Verro. Vello, Percello, Mergo, Prěmo,

Exc. 6. The following add t, with a change of the root; those having n, nc, ng, nqu, or mp at the end of the first root dropping n and m in the third:

Sĕro, Sperno, Stringo, Uro, Fingo, Gěro, Cerno. Vinco; Frango, Rumpo, Sisto, Sterno, Tĕro, to which add the compounds of linguo, and verbs in sco with the second root in v; the latter drop sc before t; as, nosco, novi, notum; except pasco, which drops c only.

Exc. 7. (a.) The following have $\mathcal{U}:$ —

Pono, with a change of on into os. Elĭcio, Mŏlo, Gěno, (obs. form of gigno,) Vŏmo, Sĭno, dropping n.

(b.) The following, like verbs of the fourth conjugation, add it to the first root:

Pěto, Těro, dropping ě. Arcesso, Cŭpio, Făcesso, Lăcesso, Quæro, with a change of r into s.

For other irregularities occurring in this conjugation, see § 172-174.

§ 172. The following list contains most of the simple verbs, both regular and irregular, in the third conjugation, with such of their compounds as require particular notice:-

Acuo, ăcui, ăcūtum, d. to sharpen. Ago, ēgi, actum, r. d. to drive. So circumago, cōgo, and perago. *ambigo, —, to doubt. So satago. The other compounds change a into I, in the first root; as, exigo, exēgi, exactum, to drive out. *prodigo, -ēgi, to squander. See § 189, 2. Alo, ălui, altum, and later ălitum, d.

to nourish.

*Ango, anxi, to strangle.

Arguo, argui, argūtum, d. to convict. Arcesso, -cessīvi, -cessītum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessīri or ar-

*Bătuo, bătui, d. to beat.

Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.

*Cădo, cecidi, cāsūrus, to fall. The compounds change ă into i, in the first root, and drop the reduplication; as, occido, -cidi, -cāsum, r. to set.

Cædo, cecīdi, cæsum, r. d. to cut. The compounds change æ into i, and drop the reduplication; as, occido, -cidi,

-cīsum.

Cando, (obsolete,) synonymous with candeo of the second conjugation. Hence accendo, -cendi, -censum, d. to kindle. So incendo, succendo.

*Căno, cecini, d. to sing. The compounds change a into I; as, *concino, -cinui. So occino, præcino. *acci-no, —. So incino, intercino, succino, recino.

*Capesso, -īvi, r. d. to undertake.

Căpio, cepi, captum, r. d. to take. So antecăpio. The other compounds antecăpio. change a into I, in the first root, and into e in the third; as, dēcīpio, dēcēpi, dēceptum.

Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck. The compounds change a into e; as,

dēcerpo, dēcerpsi, dēcerptum. Cēdo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield. Cello, (obsolete.) excello, -cellui, -celsum, to excel. *antěcello, -. So præcello, recello.
-culsum, to strike. percello, -cŭli,

Cerno, crēvi, crētum, d. to decree.

*Cerno, -, to see.

Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird.

*Clango, -, to clang.

Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut. The compounds change au into ū; as, occlūdo, occlūsi, occlūsum, to shut

*†Ĉlaudo, -, to limp.

*†Clěpo, clepsi, rarely clēpi, to steal. Colo, colui, cultum, d. to till. -cului, -cultum, d. to hide.

Como, compsi, comptum, to deck. *Compesco, -pescui, to restrain.

Consŭlo, -sŭlui, -sultum, m. r. d. to consult.

Coquo, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook. Crēdo, crēdidi, crēditum, r. d. to be-

*Cresco, crēvi, to grow. concresco, -crēvi, -crētum.

Cubo is of the first conjugation. Cf. § 165. *accumbo, -cubui, to lie down. So the other compounds which insert m. *Cūdo, —, to forge. excūdo, -cūdi, -cūsum, d. to stamp.

Cŭpio, cŭpīvi, cŭpītum, d. to desire. Subj. imperf. cŭpīret. Lucr. 1, 72.

*Curro, cucurri, cursurus, to run. concurro, succurro, and transcurro, drop the reduplication; the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it; as, dēcurro, dēcurri, and dēcucurri, dēcursum. *antěcurro, So circumcurro.

*Dēgo, dēgi, d. to live.

Dēmo, dempsi, demptum, r.d. to take away.

Depso, depsui, depstum, to knead. Dīco, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say. *Disco, didici, discitūrus, d. to learn.

*Dispesco, -, to separate.

Dīvido, dīvīsi, dīvīsum, r. d. to divide. Do is of the first conjugation. abdo, -didi, -ditum, d. to hide. So condo, indo. addo, -didi, -ditum, r. d. to add. So dédo, edo, prodo, reddo, trado, vendo. †dido, -didi, -ditum, trādo, vendo. †dīdo, -dīdi, -dītum. to distribute. So abdo, subdo. perdo. -didi, -ditum, m. r. d. abscondo, -di or -didi, -ditum or -sum.

Dūco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead. Edo, ēdi, ēsum, m. u. r. d. to eat. Exuo, exui, exūtum, d. to strip off.

Emo, ēmi, emptum, r. d. to buy. So coemo. The other compounds change ě to i; as, eximo, -ēmi, -emptum.

Făcesso, -cessi, -cessītum, to execute. Făcio, fēci, factum, m. u. r. d. to do. Compounded with a preposition, it changes a into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third, makes -fice in the imperative, and has a regular passive. Compounded with other words, it retains & when of this conjugation, makes fac in the imperative, and has the passive, fio, factum. See § 180.

Fallo, fefelli, falsum, d. to deceive. *réfello, -felli, d. to refute.

Fendo, (obsolete.) defendo, -fendi, -fensum, m. u. r. d. to defend. offendo, -fendi, -fensum, d. to offend.

Fěro, tůli, lātum, r. d. to bear. § 179. A persect tětůli is rare. compounds are affero, attuli, allatum; aufero, abstăli, ablātum; differo, distăli, dilātum; confero, contăli, collātum; infero, intăli, illātum; offero, obtăli, oblātum; effero, extŭli, elātum; suffero, sustŭli, sublātuin; and circum-, per-, trans-, de-,

prō-, antě-, præf ĕro, -tŭli, -lātum. *Fervo, vi, to boil. Cf. ferveo, 2d conj. Fīdo, —, fīsus, to trust. See § 162, 18. confido, confisus sum or confidi, to rely on. diffido, diffisus sum, to distrust.

Figo, fixi, fixum, r. rarely fictum, to fix. Findo, fidi, fissum, d. to cleare. Fingo, finxi, fictum, d. to feign. Flecto, flexi, flexum, r. d. to bend.

*Fligo, flixi, to dash. So confligo. affligo, -flixi, -flictum, to afflict. infligo. profligo is of the first conjugation.

Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, (fluctum, obs.) r. to flow.

Fŏdio, fōdi, fossum, d. to dig. pres. inf. pass. fodiri: so also effodīri.

Frango, frēgi, fractum, r. d. to break. The compounds change a into i, in the first root; as, infringo, infrēgi, infractum, to break in upon.

*Fremo, fremui, d. to roar, howl. Frendo, -, fresum or fressum, to gnash. Frigo, frixi, frictum, rarely frixum, to roast.

*Fŭgio, fūgi, fŭgĭtūrus, d. to flee.

*Fulgo, -, to flash. Fundo, fūdi, fūsum, r. d. to pour.

*Firo, -, to raye.

*Gemo, gemui, d. to groan. Gero, gessi, gestum, r. d. to bear. Gigno, (obsolcte gěno,) gěnui, gěnitum, r. d. to beget.

*Glisco, —, to grow. *Glūbo, —, to pecl. deglūbo, —, -gluptum.

Gruo, (obsolete.) *congruo, -grui, to agree. So ingruo.

Ico, īci, ictum, r. to strike.

Imbuo, imbui, imbūtum, d. to imbue. *Incesso, -cessivi or -cessi, to attack. †Induo, indui, indutum, to put on.

Jăcio, jēci, jactum, d. to cast. The compounds change a into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third. (§ 163, Exc. 3); as, rejicio, rejēci, rejectum.

Jungo, junxi, junctum, r. d. to join. Lacesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to provoke.

Lăcio, (obsolete.) The compounds change ă into i; as, allicio, -lexi, -lectum, d. to allure. So illicio, pellicio. elicio, -licui, -licitum, to draw out.

Lædo, læsi, læsum, m. r. to hurt. The compounds change a into I; as, illido, illīsi, illīsum, to dash against.

*Lambo, lambi, to lick.

Elamoo, latino, to acts.

Lego, legi, lectum, r. d. to read. So allego, perlego, prælego, relego, sublego, and translego; the other compounds change e into 1; as, colligo, collegi; collectum, to collect. But the following add s to form the second root; § 171, 1; diligo, -lexi, -lectum, to love intolligo, dexi -lectum, to love. intelligo, -lexi, -lectum, u. r. d. to understand. negligo, -lexi, -lectum, r. d. to neglect.

Lingo, —, linctum, d. to lick. *delingo, —, to lick up.

Lino, līvi or lēvi, lītum, d. to daub. *Linquo, līqui, d. to leave. relinquo, -līqui, -lictum, r. d. delinquo, -līqui, -lictum. So derelinguo.

Lūdo, lūsi, lūsum, m. r. to play. *Luo, lui, luitūrus, d. to atone. abluo, -lui, -lūtum, r. d. diluo, -lui, -lūtum, d. So eluo.

Mando, mandi, mansum, d. to chew. Mergo, mersi, mersum, r. d. to dip. So immergo; but pres. inf. pass. immergēri, Col. 5, 9, 3.

Měto, messui, messum, d. to reap. Mětuo, metui, metūtum, d. to fear. *Mingo, minxi, mictum, (sup.) to make

Minuo, minui, minutum, d. to lessen. Mitto, mīsi, missum, r. d. to send.

Mölo, mölui, mölitum, to grind. Mungo, (obsolete.) emungo, -munxi, -munctum, to wipe the nose.

Necto, nexi, nexum, d. to knit. innecto, -nexui, -nexum. So annecto, connecto.

*Ningo or -guo, ninxi, to snow.

Nosco, novi, notum, d. to learn. nosco, -novi, -nitum, d. to recognize. cognosco, -novi, -nitum, u. r. d. to So recognosco. *internosco. novi, to distinguish between. præcognosco, -, præcognitum, to fore-know. *dignosco, -. So prænosco. ignosco, -novi, -notum, d. to pardon.

Nubo, nupsi, or nupta sum, nuptum,

m. r. to marry.

Nuo, (obsolete,) to nod. *abnuo, -nui, -nuitūrus, d. to refuse. *annuo, -nui. So innuo, renuo.

*Olo, ŏlui, to smell.

Pando, -, passum or pansum, to open. So expando. dispando, -, -pansum. Pago, (obs. the same as paco whence pa-

ciscor,) pěpigi, pactum, to bargain:

Pango, panki or pēgi, pactum, panctū-

rus, d. to drive in. compingo, -pēgi, -pactum. So impingo. *oppango, -pēgi. *depango, -. So repango, suppingo.

*Parco, peperci rarely parsi, parsūrus, to spare. Some of the compounds change a to e; as, *comparco or comperco. *imperco, -.

Pario, peperi, partum, pariturus, d. to bring forth. The compounds are of

the fourth conjugation.

Pasco, pāvi, pastum, m. r. d. to feed. Pecto, —, pexum, and pectitum, d. to comb. So depecto. repecto.

*Pēdo, pěpēdi. *oppēdo, -Pello, pepuli, pulsum, d. to drive. Its compounds are not reduplicated.

Pendo, pěpendi, pensum, r. to weigh. The compounds drop the reduplication. See § 163, Exc. 1.

Pěto, pětīvi, pětītum, m. u. r. d. to ask. Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint.

Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, pinsum or pis-

tum, to pound. *Plango, planxi, planctūrus, to lament. Plaudo, plausi, plausum, d. to clap, applaudo. So applaudo. *tcircum-plaudo, —. The other compounds

change au into ō.

Plecto, -, plexum, d. to twine.

*Pluo, plui or plūvi, to rain.
Pono, posui, (anciently posivi), positum, r. d. to place.

*† Porricio, -, to offer sacrifice. *Posco, poposci, d. to demand.

Prehendo, { -di, -sum, r. d. to seize.

Premo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press. The compounds change & into i, in the first root; as, imprimo, impressi, impressum, to impress.

Promo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to

bring out.

*Psallo, psalli, to play on a stringed instrument.

Pungo, pupugi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. 80 dispungo, expungo. interpungo, -, -punctum. *repungo, -.

Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to seek. The compounds change æ into ī; as, requiro, requisīvi, requisītum,

to seek again.

Quătio, —, quassum, to shake. The compounds change quă into cu; as, concutio, -cussi, -cussum, d. discătio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d.

Quiesco, quievi, quietum, r. d. to rest.

Rādo, rāsi, rāsuni, d. to shave.

Răpio, răpui, raptum, r. d. to snatch. The compounds change & into 1 in the

first and second roots, and into e in the third; as, diripio, -ripui, -reptum, m. r. So eripio and præripio.

Rego, rexi, rectum, r. d. to rule. compounds change e into i, in the first root; as, dirigo, direxi, directum. *pergo, (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forward. surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise. So porrigo (for prorigo), to stretch out. *Rēpo, repsi, to creep.

Rodo, rosi, rosum, r. to gnaw. ab-, ar-, e-, ob-, præ-rödo, want the perfect.

*Rňdo, rudívi, to bray.

Rumpo, rūpi, ruptum, r. d. to break. Ruo, rui, rutum, ruiturus, to fall. So obruo. diruo, -rui, -rutum, d. *corruo, -rui. So irruo.

*Săpio, sapīvi, to be wise. The compounds change a into i; as, *resipio, -sipīvi or -sipui. *desipio, -, to be silly.

*† Scabo, scabi, to scratch.

Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to engrave.

Salo or sallo, — salsum, to salt. *Scando, —, d. to climb. The compounds change a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r. d. descendo, descendi, (anciently descendidi,) descensum.

Scindo, scidi, (anciently sciscidi), scis-

sum, d. to cut.

Seisco, seīvi, seītum, d. to ordain. Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write. Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carve. Sero, sevi, satum, r. d. to sow. consero, -sēvi, -sītum. So insero, r., and

obsěro. Sero, -, sertum, to entwine. Its com-

pounds have -serui; as, assero, -serui, -sertum, r. d.

*Serpo, serpsi, to creep.

*Sido, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sēdi, sessum, from sedeo. *Šino, sīvi, sitūrus, to permit. desino,

desīvi, desītum, r. § 284, R. 3, Exc. 2. Sisto, stīti, stātum, to stop. *absisto, -stiti. So the other compounds; but

circumsisto wants the perfect. Solvo, solvi, solūtum, r. d. to loose.

Spargo, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e; as, respergo, -spersi, -spersum; but with circum and in, a sometimes remains.

The compounds Spěcio, (obsolete.) change e into I, in the first root; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to look inspicio, inspexi, inspectum. r. d.

Sperno, sprēvi, sprētum, d. to despise. *†Spuo, spui, to spit. *respuo, respui, d.

Stătuo, stătui, stătūtum, d. to place. The compounds change a into 1; as, instituo, institui, institutum, to in-

Sterno, strāvi, strātum, d. to strew. *Sternuo, sternui, to sneeze.

*Sterto, -, to snore. * desterto, destertni.

*Stinguo, -, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So exstinguo,

*Strěpo, strěpui, to make a noise.

*Strido, stridi, to creak.

Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to bind or tie tight.

Struo, struxi, structum, d. to build. Sūgo, suxi, suctum, to suck.

Sūmo, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take. Suo, -, sutum, d. to sew. So consuo. dissuo. insuo, -sui, sūtum. suo, -

Tago, (very rare), to touch. Hence Tango, tětigi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compounds change a into i in the first root, and drop the reduplication;

as, contingo, contigi, contactum, r. Tego, texi, tectum, r. d. to cover.

*Temno, —, d. to despise. contemno, -tempsi, -temptum, d.

Tendo, tětendi, tentum or tensum, to stretch. The compounds drop the reduplication; as, extendo, -tendi, -tentum or -tensum. So in-, os-, and re-tendo. detendo has tensum. The other compounds have tentum.

*†Tergo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergeo, of the second conjugation has the same second and third roots.

Těro, trīvi, trītum, d. to rub. Texo, texui, textum, d. to weave.

Tingo or tinguo, tinxi, tinctum, r. d. to moisten, tinge.

*Tollo, anciently tětůli, rarely tolli, d. to raise. The perfect and supine sustŭli and sublatum from suffero take the place of the perfect and supine of tollo and sustollo. *sustollo, -, r. to raise up, to take away. *attollo, So extollo.

Trăho, traxi, tractum, r. d. to draw. *Tremo, tremui, d. to tremble.

Tribuo, tribui, tribūtum, r. d. to ascribe.

Trūdo, trūsi, trūsum, to thrust.

Tundo, tătădi, tunsum or tūsum, to beat. The compounds drop the reduplication, and have tusum. Yet contunsum, detunsum, obtunsum, and retunsum, are also found.

Ungo, (or -guo), unxi, unctum, d. to

anoint.

Uro, ussi, ustum, d. to burn.

*Vado, -, to go. So supervado. other compounds have vāsi; as, *evādo, evāsi, r. So pervādo; also invādo, r. d.

Věho, vexi, vectum, r. to carry. Vello, velli or vulsi, vulsum, d. to pluck. So avello, d., divello, evello, d., revello, revelli, revulsum. The other compounds have velli only, except intervello, which has vulsi.

*Vergo, versi, to incline.

Verro, -, versum, d. to brush.

Verto, verti, versum, r. d. to turn. See § 174, Note.

Vinco, vīci, victum, r. d. to conquer.

*Viso, -, d. to visit.

*Vīvo, vixi, victūrus, d. to live.

*Volo, volui, velle (for volere), to be willing. See § 178. Volvo, volvi, volūtum, d. to roll.

Vŏmo, vŏmui, vŏmĭtum, r. d. to vomit.

REMARK. Those verbs in io (and deponents in ior), of the third conjugation, which are conjugated like capio (page 115) are, căpio, căpio, făcio, fodio, făgio, jācio, părio, quâtio, răpio, săpio, compounds of lăcio and spēcio, and grădior, mēlior, pătior, and môrior: but compare môrior in § 174, and ôrior, and pôtior in § 177.

Inceptive Verbs.

§ 173. Inceptive verbs in general either want the third root, or adopt that of their primitives: (see § 187, II, 2). Of those derived from nouns and adjectives, some want the second root, and some form it by adding u to the root of the primitive.

In the following list, those verbs to which s is added, have a simple verb in use from which they are formed:-

- *Acesco, ăcui, s. to grow sour.
- *Agresco, to grow sick.
- *Albesco, -, s. to grow white.
- *Alesco, -, s. to grow. coalesco, -alui, -alitum, to grow together.
- *Ardesco, arsi, s. to take fire. *Aresco, —, s. to grow dry. *cxares-co, -arui. So inaresco, peraresco.
- *Augesco, auxi, s. to increase.
- *Călesco, călui, s. to grow warm.
- *Calvesco, -, s. to become bald.
- *Candesco, candui, s. to grow white.
- *Cānesco, cānui, s. to become hoary.
- *Clāresco, clārui, s. to become bright.
- *Condormisco, -dormīvi, s. to go to
- *Conticesco, -ticui, to become silent.
- *Crebresco, crebui and crebrui, to increase.
- *Crūdesco, crūdui, to become violent.
- *Ditesco, —, to grow rich. *Dulcesco, —, to grow sweet.
- *Dūresco, dūrui, to grow hard. *Evilesco, evilui, to become worthless.
- *Extimesco, -timui, to fear greatly.
- *Fătisco, —, to gape. *Flaccesco, flaccui, s. to wilt.
- *Fervesco, ferbui, s. to grow hot.
- *Floresco, florui, s. to begin to flourish.
- *Frăcesco, frăcui, to grow rancid.
- *Frigesco, —, s. to grow cold. frigesco, -frixi. So refrigesco.

- *Frondesco, -, s. to put forth leaves.
- *Frăticesco, —, to put forth shoots. *Gelasco, —, s. to freeze. So *conge
 - lasco, s. to congeal. *Gemisco, -, s. to begin to sigh.
- *Gennsco, —, s. to begin to sign.
 *Generasco, —, to begin to bud.
 *Generasco, —, s. to be produced.
 *Grandesco, —, to grow large.
 *Gravesco, —, to grow heavy.
 *Hæresco, —, s. to grow dul.
 *Høresco, horni s. to grow dul.

 - *Horresco, horrui, s. to grow rough.

 - *Horresco, horral, s. to grow rough.
 *Humesco, —, s. to grow moist.
 *Ignesco, —, to become inflamed.
 *Indòlesco, —, to become haughty.
 *Intègrasco, —, to be come haughty.
 *Juvènesco, —, to grow young.
 *Jangnesco, langui, s. to grow languid.
 *Landesco— to hecome store.

 - *Lăpidesco, —, to become stone. *Lātesco, —, to grow broad.
 - *Lătesco, to be concealed. s. *delitesco. -litui; *oblitesco, -litui.

 - *Lcntesco, —, to become soft. *Līquesco, —, s. to become liquid. *dēlĭquesco, -līcui.

 - *Lūcesco, —, 's. to grow light, to dawn.
 *Lūtesco, —, s. to become muddy.
 *Mūcesco, —, s. } to grow lean.

 - *remacresco, -macrui.
 - *Mădesco, mădui, s. to grow moist.

- *Marcesco, -, s. to pine away.
- *Mātūresco, mātūrui, to ripen.
- *Miseresco, miserui, s. to pity.
- *Mitesco, —, to grow mild. *Mollesco, —, to grow soft. *Mutesco, —, to become dumb. *obmūtesco, obmūtui.
- *Nigresco, nigrui, s. to grow black. *Nitesco, nitui, s. to grow bright.
- *Notesco, notui, to become known. *Obbrūtesco, —, to become brutish. *Obdormisco, —, s. to fall asleep.
- *Obsurdesco, -surdui, to grow deaf.
- *Occallesco, -callui, to become callous. *Olesco, (scarcely used.) *abolesco, -ŏlēvi, s. to cease. ădŏlesco, -ŏlēvi, exŏlesco, -ultum, s. to grow up. -ŏlēvi, -ŏlētum, to grow out of date. So obsolesco. inolesco, -olevi, -oli-
- tum, d. to grow in or on. *Pallesco, pallui, s. to grow pale.
- *Pallesco, pallul, s. to grow pate.
 *Pătesco, pătul, s. to be opened.
 *Păvesco, pāvi, s. to grow fearful.
 *Pertimesco, —, to grow fut.
 *Pinguesco, —, to grow fut.
 *Pübesco, —, to come to maturity.
 *Puĕrasco, —, to become a boy.
 *Pūtesco, —, s.
 *Pūtesco, —, s.
 *Rāvesco. —, to become thin.

- *Raresco, -, to become thin. *Rěsipisco, -sipui, s. to recover one's
- senses. *Rigesco, rigui, s. to grow cold.
- *Rnbesco, rubui, s. to grow red. *ērubesco, -rŭbui, d.

§ 174. Deponent Verbs of the Third Conjugation.

Apiscor, aptus, to get. The compounds change a into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, adipiscor, ădeptus. So indipiscor.

Expergiscor, experrectus, to awake. *Fătiscor, to gape or crack open. The compounds change à into e; as, def e-

tiscor, -fessus. Fruor, fruitus or fructus, fruitūrus, d.

to enjoy. Fungor, functus, r. d. to perform. Gradior, gressus, to walk. The compounds change à into e; as, aggrédior, aggressus, r. d. Inf. pres. aggredi and aggrediri; so, progredi and progredīri; and pres. ind. ēgredītur, Plaut.

*Irascor, to be angry. Lābor, lapsus, r. to fall.

*Līquor, to melt, flow. Lŏquor, lŏcūtus, r. d. to speak.

Miniscor, (obsolete.) comminiscor, commentus, p. to invent. *reminiscor, to remember.

- *Sānesco, —, to become sound. *consanesco, -sanni.
- *Sĕnesco, sĕnui, s. d. to grow old. So consenesco.
- *Sentisco, —, s. to perceive. *Siccesco, —, to become dry. *Silesco, sllui, s. to grow silent.
- *Solidesco, -, to become solid. *Sordesco, sordni, s. to become filthy.
- *Splendesco, splendui, s. to become bright.
- *Spāmesco, —, to begin to foam. *Stěrilesco, —, to become barren.
- *Stupesco, stupui, s. to become aston-
- Suesco, suēvi, suētum, s. to become accustomed.
- *Tābesco, tābni, s. to waste away.
- *Teneresco and -asco, -, to become tender.
 - *Těpesco, těpui, s. to grow warm. *Torpesco, torpui, s. to grow torpid.
- *Tremisco, -, s. to begin to tremble.
- *Tumesco, tumui, s. to begin to swell.
- *Turgesco, —, s. } to begin to suce..

 *Uvesco, —, to become moist.

 *Valesco, —, s. to become strong.

 *Vanesco, —, to vanish. *Evanesco,
- *Větěrasco, větěrāvi, to grow old. *Viresco, virui, s. to grow green.
- *Vivesco, vixi, s. to come to life. *revivisco, -vixi.

Mŏrior, (mŏri, rarely mŏrīri,) mortuus, moriturus, d. to die. So emoriri, Plaut. for emori.

Nanciscor, nactus or nanctus to obtain. Nascor, natus, nascitūrus, u. to be born. Nītor, nixus or nīsus, nīsūrus, to lean

Oblīviscor, oblītus, d. p. to forget. Páciscor, pactus, d. to bargain.

dēpāciscor. Patior, passus, r. d. to suffer. perpetior.

-pessus. From plecto, to twine, come, amplec-

tor, amplexus, d. p. complector, complexus, p. So circumplector. Proficiscor, profectus, r. to depart. Queror, questus, m. u. d. to complain.

*Ringor, to snarl.

Sequor, secutus, r. d. to follow.

Tuor, tūtus, to protect. *Vescor, d. to eat.

Ulciscor, ultus, m. d. p. to avenge. Utor, ūsus, r. d. to use.

Note. Devertor, prævertor, revertor, compounds of verto, are used as deponents in the present and imperfect tenses; revertor also, sometimes, in the perfect.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§ 175. Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in iv, and their third in it; as, audio, audivi, auditum.

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjugation :--

Audio, -īvi or -ii, m. u. r. d. to hear. *Cio, cīvi, to excite. Ct. cieo, § 168. Condio, -īvi or -ii, to season. Custodio, -īvi or -ii, d. to guard. *Dormio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to sleep. Erudio, -īvi or -ii, d. to instruct. Expedio, -īvi or -ii, d. to disentangle. Fīnio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to finish. *Gestio, -īvi or -ii, to exult; desire. Impedio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to entangle. Insanio, -ivi or -ii, to be mad. Irrētio, -īvi or ii, to ensnare. Lēnio, -īvi or ii, d. to mitigate. Mollio, -īvi or -ii, d. to soften.

*Mūgio, -īvi or -ii, to bellow. Mūnio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to fortify. Mūtio, -īvi, to mutter. Nūtrio, -īvi or -ii, d. to nourish. Partio, -īvi or -ii, r. to divide. Pŏlio, -īvi, d. to polish. Pūnio, -īvi or -ii, d. to punish. Rědĭmio, -īvi, to crown. Scio, -īvi, u. r. to know. Servio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to serve. Sopio, -īvi or -ii, to lull asleep. Stabilio, -īvi or -ii, to establish. Tinnio, -īvi or -ii, r. to tinkle. Vestio, -īvi or -ii, to clothe.

§ 176. The following list contains those verbs of the fourth conjugation which form their second and third roots irregularly, and those which want either or both of them.

REMARK. The principal irregularity in verbs of the fourth conjugation arises from following the analogy of those verbs of the third conjugation whose first root ends in a consonant; as, sēpio, sepsi, septum. A few become irregular by syncope; as, věnio, vēni, ventum.

Amicio, -ui or -xi, amictum, d. to clothe.

*Balbūtio, -, to stammer. Bullio, ii, ītum, to bubble.

*Cœcūtio, —, to be dim-sighted.

*Cambio, —, to exchange. *Dementio, —, to be mad. Effutio, —, to babble. Eo, ivi or ii, itum, r. d. to go. compounds have only ii in the perfect, except obeo, præeo, and subeo, which have īvi or ii. All the compounds want the supine and perfect participles, except adeo, ambio, ineo, obeo, prætěreo, subeo, circumeo or circueo, rědeo, transeo, and *†vēneo, vēnii, r. (from vēnum eo), to be sold.

Farcio, farsi, fartum or farctum, to cram. The compounds generally change a to e; as, refercio, -fersi, -fertum, but con- and ef-, -farcio and

-fercio. Fastīdio, -ii, -ītum, d. to loathe.

*Ferio, -, d. to strike.

*Fĕrōcio, —, to be fierce.
Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, d. to prop up.

*Gannio, —, to yelp, bark.
*Glōcio, —, to cluck as a hen.
*Glūtio, īvi, or glūtii, to swallow.

Grandio, -, to make great.

*Grunnio, grunnii, to grunt. Haurio, hausi, rar. haurii, haustum, rar. hausītum, haustūrus, hausūrus, u. d. to draw.

*Hinnio, —, to neigh.
*Ineptio, —, to trifle.
*Lascīvio, lascīvii, to be wanton.

*Ligūrio, ligūrii, to feed delicately. *Lippio, —, r. to be blear-eyed.

*Obedio, obedii, r. to obey.

Părio is of the third conjugation, but its compounds are of the fourth, changing ă to ĕ; as, ăpĕrio, ăpĕrui, ăpertum, r. d. to open. So operio, d. comperio, comperi, compertum, rarely dep. comperior, to find out. So reperio,

Păvio, —, păvītum, to beat.

*Prūrio, —, to itch.
Queo, quīvi or quii, quĭtum, to be able.
So *něqueo.

*Raucio, —, r. to be hoarse.

*Rūgio, —, to roar as a lion.
Sœvio, sævii, ītum, r. to rage.

*Sāgio, —, to perceive keenly.

*Sālio, sālui or sālii, to leap. The compounds change ă into 1; as, *absīlio, —. So circumsilio. *assīlio, -ui. So dissīlio, insīlio. *dēsīlio, -ui or -ii. So exsīlio, rešīlio, subsīlio. *transīlio, -ui or -īvi, d. So prōsīlio.
Sălio, —, ītum, r. d. to salt.

Sancio, sanxi, sancītum or sanctum, d.

to ratify, sanction.

Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, d. to patch. Sarrio, -īvi or -ui, sarrītum, d. to weed, hoe.

*Scatūrio, —, to gush out. Sentio, sensi, sensum, r. to feel. Sĕpĕlio, sĕpēlīvi or -ii, rar. sĕpĕli, sĕpultum, r. d. to bury.

Sepio, sepsi, septum, d. to hedge in. *Singultio, —, to sob, hiccup. *Sitio, sitii, to thirst.

*Sitio, sitii, to thirst. Suffio, -ii, -itum, d. to fumigate.

*Tussio, —, to cough. *Vāgio, vāgii, to cry.

*Vāgio, vāgii, to cry. Věnio, vēni, ventum, r. to come. Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, r. d. to bind.

Note. Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots, except these three; —**\(\vec{e}\)\(\vec{v}\)ito, —, \(\vec{e}\)\(\vec{v}\)ito desire to eat; **nupt\(\vec{u}\)rio, -\(\vec{v}\)i, to desire to marry; **part\(\vec{u}\)rio, -\(\vec{v}\)i, to be in travail. See § 187, II. 3.

§ 177. Deponent Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

Assentior, assensus, r. d. p. to assent. Blandior, blanditus, to fatter. Largior, largitus, p. to give, bestow. Mentior, mentitus, r. p. to lie. Metior, mensus or metitus, d. p. to measure.

Mölior, mölitus, d. to strive, toil. Ordior, orsus, d. p. to begin. Orior, ortus, öritürus, d. to spring up. Except in the present infinitive, this verb seems to be of the third conjugation.

Pěrior, (obs. whence pěrītus.) expěrior, expertus, r. d. to try. oppěrrior, oppertus or oppěrītus, d. to wait for. Partior, partitus, d. to divide.

Partnor, partnus, d. to awae.
Pottor, pottus, r. d. to obtain, enjoy.
In the poets the present indicative and imperfect subjunctive are sometimes of the third conjugation.
Sortior, sortitus, r. to cast lots.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 178. Irregular verbs are such as deviate from the common forms in some of the parts derived from the first root.

They are sum, volo, fero, edo, fio, eo, queo, and their compounds.

Sum and its compounds have already been conjugated. See § 153. In the conjugation of the rest, the parts which are irregular are fully exhibited, but a synopsis only, of the other parts is, in general, given. Some parts of volo and of its compounds are wanting.

1. $V\ddot{o}lo$ is irregular only in the present of the indicative and infinitive, and in the present and imperfect of the subjunctive.

REMARK. It is made irregular partly by syncope, and partly by a change in the vowel of the root. In the present infinitive also and in the imperfect subjunctive, after \check{e} was dropped, r following l was changed into l; as, $vel\check{e}re$ (velre) velle; $vel\check{w}rem$ (velrem) vellem) vellem0 v

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.
vŏ'-lŏ, vel'-lĕ, vŏl'-u-ī, to be willing, to wish.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. vo'-lo, vis, vult;

P. vŏl'-ŭ-mŭs, vul'-tĭs, vŏ'-lunt. Imperf. vŏ-lē'-bam, vŏ-lē'-bās, etc.

vo'-lam, vo'-les, etc. Fut.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf.

Plup. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.

vŏl'-u-ī.

S. vě'-lim, vě'-līs, vě'-lĭt; Pres.

P. vě-li'-mus, vě-li'-tis, vě'-lint.

Perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. vŏl-u-is'-sem.

Imperf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-let; P. vel-lē'-mus, vel-lē'-tis, vel'-lent.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. vel'-lĕ.

Pres. vo'-lens.

Perf. vŏl-u-is'-sĕ.

Note. Volt and voltis, for vult and vultis, and vin', for visne are found in Plautus and other ancient authors.

2. Nolo is compounded of the obsolete $n\bar{e}$ (for non) and volo. The v of volo after ne is dropped, and the vowels (e o) are contracted into \bar{o} .

nō'-lŏ,

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. noľ-lĕ,

nol'-u-i, to be unwilling.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. no'-lo, non'-vis, non'-vult;

P. nol'-ŭ-mus, non-vul'-tis, no'-lunt. Imperf. no-le'-bam, -bas, -bat, etc. Fut. nō'-lam, -lēs, -lĕt, etc.

Perf. nöl'-u-ī. Plup. nō-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. no-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. nō'-lim, nō'-līs, nō'-līt;

P. nō-lī'-mus, nō-lī'-tĭs, nō'-lint. Imperf. S. nol'-lem, nol'-les, nol'-let;

Perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. nol-u-is'-sem.

P. nol-le'-mus, nol-le'-tis, nol'-lent.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.

Future.

Sing. 2. no'-li; Plur. no-li-te. Sing. 2. no-li-to, Plur. nol-i-to'-te, 3. nō-lī'-tŏ; nō-lun'-tŏ.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. nol'-lĕ. Perf. nol-u-is'-se. Pres. no'-lens.

Note. In non-vis, non-vult, etc. of the present, non takes the place of ne, but nēvis and nēvolt also occur in Plautus.

3. Mālo is compounded of magis and volo. In composition magis drops its final syllable, and $v \breve{o} lo$ its v. The vowels $(\breve{a} \breve{o})$ are then contracted into ā.

> Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. mā'-lŏ, mal'-lĕ, māl'-u-ī, to prefer.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. mā'-lō, mā'-vīs, mā'-vult; Perf. māl'-u-ī. P. māl'-ŭ-mŭs, mā-vul'-tĭs, mā'-lunt. Plup. mā-lu'-ĕ-ram. Imperf. mā-lē'-bam, -bās, etc. Fut. perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rŏ. Fut. mā'-lam, -lēs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

S. mā'-lim, mā'-līs, mā'-līt; Perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rim. P. mā-lī'-mŭs, mā-lī'-tĭs, mā'-lint. Plup. māl-u-is'-sem. Imperf. S. mal'-lem, mal'-les, mal'-let;

P. mal-lē'-mus, mal-lē'-tis, mal'-lent.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. mal'-lĕ. Perf. māl-u-is'-sĕ.

Note. Māvolo, māvolunt; māvolet; māvelim, māvelis, māvelit; and māvellem; for mālo, mālunt, etc., occur in Plautus.

§ 179. Fero is irregular in two respects:—1. Its second and third roots are not derived from the first, but from otherwise obsolete verbs, viz. tŭlo for tollo, and tlao, sup. tlātum, by aphæresis, lātum:—2. In the present infinitive active, in the imperfect subjunctive, and in certain parts of the present indicative and imperative, of both voices, the connecting vowel is omitted. In the present infinitive passive, r is doubled.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE. Pres. Indic. fě'-rŏ, (to bear.) Pres. Indic. fe'-ror, (to be borne.)

Pres. Infin. fer'-re, Pres. Infin. fer'-ri, Perf. Indic. tŭ'-lī, Perf. Part. la'-tus. Supine. lā'-tum.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

S. fe'-ro, fers, fert; fě'-ror, fer'-rīs or -re, fer'-tur; P. fer'-i-mus, fer'-tis, fe'-runt. fĕr'-ĭ-mŭr, fĕ-rim'-i-nī, fĕ-run'-tŭr.

Imperf. fĕ-rē'-bam. fĕ-rē'-băr. Imperf. Fut. fě'-ram, -rēs, etc. Fut. fe'-rar, -re'-ris or -re'-re, etc. Perf. tŭ'-lī. Perf. lā'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī. Plup. lā'-tūs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Plup. tŭ'lĕ-ram. Fut. perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rŏ Fut. perf. lā'-tus ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fĕ'-ram, -rās, etc. Imperf. fer'-rem, -res, etc.

tŭ'-lĕ-rim. Perf. Plup. tŭ-lis'-sem. Pres. fe'-rar, -ra'-ris or -ra'-re, etc.

Imperf. fer'-rĕr, -rĕ'-rĭs, etc. Perf. lā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. lā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. Plup.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. S. fer'-re, P. fe-rim'-i-ni. Pres. S. fer, P. fer'-tĕ.

Fut. S. fer'-to, P. fer-to'-te,

fer'-to; fe-run'-to. Fut. S. fer'-tor, P. (fe-rem'-i-ni.) fer'-tŏr. fĕ-run'-tŏr.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fer'-re. Pres. fer'-rī.

Perf. la'-tus es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ. Perf. tŭ-lis'-së.

Fut. $l\bar{a}$ -t \bar{u} '-r \bar{u} s es'-s \bar{e} . Fut. $l\bar{a}$ '-tum \bar{i} '-r \bar{i} .

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. lā'-tŭs. Pres. fĕ'-rens. Fut. lā-tū'-rŭs. Fut. fĕ-ren'-dŭs.

GERUND.

fĕ-ren'-dī, etc.

SUPINES.

Former, la'-tum.

Latter, la'-tū.

NOTE. In the comic writers the following reduplicated forms are found in parts derived from the second root, viz. tetüli, tetulisti, tetülit, tetulērunt; tetulēro, tetulērit; tetulissem, and tetulisse.

§ 180. Fio, to become, is properly a neuter verb of the third conjugation, having only the parts derived from the first root; but it is used also as a passive of facio, from which it takes those parts of the passive which are derived from the third root, together with the participle in dus. The infinitive present has been changed from the regular form fiĕrĕ to fiĕrĭ.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

fĭ'-ĕ-rī. fac'-tus, to be made or to become.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. fī'-ŏ, fīs, fĭt; Perf. fac'-tus sum or fu'-ī.

P. fi-mūs, fi'-tis, fi'-unt. Plup. fac'-tūs ë'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Imperf. fī-ē'-bam, fī-ē'-bās, etc. Fut. perf. fac'-tūs è'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ. Fut. fī'-am, fī'-ēs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fī'-am, fī'-ās, etc.

Imp. fī'-ē-rem, -ĕ'-rēs, etc.

Perf. fac'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim.

Plup. fac'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sing. fī; Plur. fī'-tě.

Pres. fĭ'-ĕ-rī.
Perf. fac'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.
Fut. fac'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

SUPINE.

Latter. fac'-tū.

Perf. fac'-tŭs. Fut. fă-ci-en'-dŭs.

Note. The compounds of f acio which retain a, have also f to in the passive; as, calef acio, to warm; passive, calef io; but those which change a into i form the passive regularly. (Cf. facio in the list, i 172.) Yet confit, defit, and infit, occur. See i 183, 12, 13, 14.

§ 181. Edo, to eat, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the third conjugation; but in the present of the indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, it has also forms similar to those of the corresponding tenses of sum:—Thus.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

S. ĕ'-dŏ, ĕ'-dĭs, ĕ'-dĭt,
(or ēs, est);
P. ĕd'-ĭ-mūs, ĕd'-ĭ-tĭs, ĕ'-dunt.
(or es'-tĭs),

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imperfect.

S. ĕd'-ĕ-rem, ĕd'-ĕ-rēs, ĕd'-ĕ-rēt, (or es'-sem, es'-sēs, es'-sēt); P. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-mŭs, ĕd-ĕ-rē'-tĭs, ĕd'-ĕ-rent, (or es-sē'-mŭs, es-sē'-tĭs, es'-sent).

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres, S. ĕ'-dĕ,
 P. ĕd'-ī-tĕ,

 (or ēs;
 es'-tĕ).

 Fut. S. ĕd'-ĭ-tŏ.
 P. ĕd-ĭ-tō'-tĕ. ĕ-c

Fut. S. ed'-i-tō, P. ed-i-tō'-te, edun'-tō. (or es'-tō, es-tō'-te).

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĕ-rĕ, (or es'-sĕ).

PASSIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĭ-tŭr, (or es'-tŭr). Imperf. ĕd-ĕ-rĕ'-tŭr, (or es-sē'-tŭr).

Note. (a.) In the present subjunctive, $\check{e}dim$, $\check{e}dis$, etc., are found, for $\check{e}dam$, $\check{e}d\tilde{a}s$, etc.

(b.) In the compounds of ĕdo, also, forms resembling those of sum occur. Ambĕdo has the participles ambens and ambēsus; comĕdo has comēsus, comesūrus, and rarely comestus; and adĕdo and exĕdo have adēsus and exĕsus.

§ 182. Eo is irregular in the parts which, in other verbs are formed from the first root, except the imperfect subjunctive and the present infinitive. In these, and in the parts formed from the second and third roots, it is a regular verb of the fourth conjugation.

Note. Eo has no first root, and the parts usually derived from that root, consist, in this verb, of terminations only.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Perf. Part. e'-ŏ, ī'-rĕ, ī'-vī, ĭ'-tum, to go.

INDICATIVE.

 Pres.
 S. e'-ŏ, īs, ĭt;
 Fut.
 ī'-bŏ, ī'-bĭs, ī'-bĭs, i'-bĭt, etc.

 P. ī'-mŭs, ī'-tīs, e'-unt.
 Perf.
 ī'-vī, ī-vis'-tī, ī'-vīt, etc.

 Imperf. S. ī'-bam, ī'-bās, ī'-bāt;
 Plup.
 īv'-ĕ-ram, īv'-ĕ-rās, etc.

 P. ī-bā'-mŭs, etc.
 Fut. perf. īv'-ĕ-rō, īv'-ĕ-rīs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. e'-am, e'-ās, e'-āt, etc. Perf. īv'-ĕ-rīm, īv'-ĕ-rīs, etc. Imperf. ī'-rem, ī'-rēs, ī'-rĕt, etc. Plup. ī-vis'-sem, ī-vis'-sēs, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. S. ī, P. ī'-tē. Fut. 2. ī'-tŏ, ī-tō'-tĕ, 3. ī'-tŏ; e-un'-tŏ.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. i'-ens, (gen. e-un'-tĭs.) Fut. ĭ-tū'-rŭs, a, um. INFINITIVE.

Pres. ī'-rĕ. Perf. ī-vis'-sĕ. Ful. ĭ-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ.

GERUND.

e-un'-dī, e-un'-dō, etc.

REMARK 1. In some of the compounds the forms eam, ies, iet occur, though rarely, in the future; as, redeam, redies, abiet, exiet, prodient. Istis, issem, and isse, are formed by contraction for ivistis, ivissem, and ivisse. See § 162, 7.

Rem. 2. In the passive voice are found the infinitive iri, and the third persons singular itur, $ib\bar{a}tur$, ibitur, itum est, etc.; $e\bar{a}tur$, $ir\bar{e}tur$, eundum est, etc., which are used impersonally. See § 184, 2, (a.)

Rem. 3. The compounds of eo, including vēneo, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have ii in the perfect rather than ivi. See under eo in § 176. Adeo, anteeo, ineo, practireo, subeo, and transeo, being used actively, are found in the passive voice. Inietur occurs as a future passive of ineo. Ambio is regular, like audio, but has either ambibat or ambiebat.

Note. Queo, I can, and nequeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo, but they want the imperative mood and the gerund, and their participles rarely occur. They are sometimes found in the passive voice, before an infinitive passive.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 183. (1.) Defective verbs are those which are not used in certain tenses, numbers, or persons.

REMARK. There are many verbs which are not found in all the tenses, numbers, and persons, exhibited in the paradigms. Some, not originally defective, are accounted so, because they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their nature defective. Thus, the first and second persons of the passive voice must be wanting in many verbs, from the nature of their signification.

- (2.) The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts:-
- 1. Odi, I hate. 2. Cœpi, I have begun. 3. Měmini, I remember.
- Fāri, to speak.
 Quæso, I pray.
 Ave, hail, or
 Salve, farewell.

- 4. Aio, 5. Inquam, \ I say.
- 10. Apage, begone.
- Cědo, tell, or give me.
 Confit, it is done.
 Dēfit, it is wanting.
 Infit, he begins. 15. Ovat, he rejoices.
- 1. Odi, cæpi, and memini are used chiefly in the perfect and in the other parts formed from the second root, and are thence called preteritive verbs. Odi has also a deponent form in the perfect:—

Ind. perf. o'-di or o'-sus sum; plup. od'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. od'-ĕ-ro. Subj. perf. ōd'-ĕ-rim; plup. ō-dis'-sem. Inf. perf. ō-dis'-se; fut. ō-sū'-rum es'-se. Part. fut. ō-sū'-rus; perf. ō'-sus.

Note 1. Exōsus and perōsus, like ōsus, are used actively. Odīvit, for ōdit, occurs, M. Anton. in Cic. Phil. 13, 19: and odiendi in Appuleius.

Ind. perf. cœ'-pi; plup. cœp'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. cœp'-ĕ-ro. SubJ. perf. cœp'-ĕ-rim; plup. cœ-pis'-sem. Ins. perf. cœ-pis'-se; fut. cœp-tü'-rum es'-se. Part. fut. cœp-tū'-rus; perf. cœp'-tus.

NOTE 2. In Plantus are found a present, capio, present subjunctive, capiam, and infinitive, capere. Before an infinitive passive, captus est, etc., rather than capi, etc., are commonly used.

3. Ind. perf. měm'-ĭ-ni; plup. mě-mĭn'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. mě-mĭn'-ĕ-ro. Subj. perf. me-min'-e-rim; plup. mem-i-nis'-sem. INF. perf. mem-i-nis'-se.

IMPERAT. 2 pers. S. mě-men'-to; P. měm-en-tō'-tě.

NOTE 3. Odi and memini have, in the perfect, the sense of the present, and, in the pluperfect and future perfect, the sense of the imperfect and future; as, fugiet atque oderit. Cic. In this respect, novi, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, and consuevi, I am wont, the perfect of consuesco, I accustom myself, agree with odi and memini.

4. IND. pres. ai'-o, * a'-is, a'-it; ---, ai'-unt. * imp. ai-ē'-bam, ai-ē'-bās, ai-ē'-bāt; ai-ē-bā'-mus, ai-ē-bā'-tis, ai-ē'-bant. Subj. pres.—, ai'-ās, ai'-āt; —, —, ai'-ant. Imperat. pres. a'-ī. Part. pres. ai'-ens.

Note 4. Ais with ne is contracted to ain' like viden', abin': for videsne, abisne. The comic writers use the imperfect albas, albat and albant, which are dissyllabic.

- 5. Ind. pres. in'-quam, in'-quis, in'-quit; in'-qui-mus, in'-qui-tis, in'-qui-unt. IMPERAT. in'-que, in'-qui-to.
- 6. IND. pres. ____, fa'-tur; fut. fa'-bor, ____, fab'-i-tur. - perf. fātus est; plup. fātus ĕram. IMPERAT. fā'-rē. PART. pres. fans; perf. fā'-tŭs; fut. fan'-dŭs. INFIN. pres. fā'-rī or fā'-ri-ēr. GERUND. gen. fan'-dī; abl. fan'-dō. SUPINE, fā'-tū.

^{*}Pronounced a'-yo, a'-yunt, etc., wherever the diphthong ai is followed by a vowel. Bee § 9, 1.

- Interfāri has the forms interfātur, interfāta est, interfāri, interfans, and interfātus.—Łffāri has effābor, effabēre, effātus est, effāti sunt; imperat. effāre; effātri, effātus, effandus, effando; effātu.—Præfāri occurs in the following forms, præfātur, præfānnur; præfabantur; præfārer; præfarentur; præfāti sūmus; præfātus fuëro; imperat. præfāto, præfāmino; præfans, præfātus, præfandus; præfando.—Pröfāri has profātur, profāta est, profāta sunt, profātus and pröfans.
- Ind. pres. quæ'-so, —, quæ'-sĭt; quæs'-ŭ-mŭs, —, —.
 Inf. pres. quæs'-ĕ-rĕ.
- IMPERAT. ă'-vē, ă-vē'-tě; ă-vē'-to. Inf. ă-vē'-rě. Note. Avēre and salvēre are often used with jūbeo.
- Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o; fut. sal-vē'-bis. Inf. pres. sal-vē'-rē. Imperat. sal'-vē, sal-vē'-tē; sal-vē'-to.
- 10. IMPERAT. ap'-a-ge. So age with a subject either singular or plural.
- 11. IMPERAT. sing. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-i-te. Hence cedodum.
- 12. Ind. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.
 Subj. pres. con-fi'-ăt; imperf. con-fi'-ě-rět. Inf. pres. con-fi'-ě-rī.
- Ind. pres. dē'-fit; pl. dē-fi'-unt; fut. dē-fi'-ĕt. Subj. pres. dē-fi'-ăt.
 Inf. pres. dē-fi'-ĕ-rī. So ef-fi'-ĕ-rī, and in-ter-fi'-ĕ-rī. Plaut.; and in-ter-fi'-at. Lucr.
- 14. IND. pres. in'-fīt; pl. in-fī'-unt.
- Ind. pres. ŏ'-văt. Subj. pres. ŏ'-vět; imperf. ŏ-vā'-rět. Part. pres. ŏ'-vans; perf. ŏ-vā'-tŭs; fut. ŏv-ā-tū'-rŭs. Gerund, ŏ-van'-dī.

REMARK 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the following:—F"orem, f'ores, etc., f r'e, (see § 154, R. 3.) Ausim, ausīs, ausīt; ausīnt. Faxo and faxim, faxīs, faxīt; faxīmus, faxītis, faxīnt. Faxem. The form in o is an old future perfect; that in im a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect subjunctive. See § 162, 7, (c.), and 9.

REM. 2. In the present tense, the first person singular, făro, to be mad, and dor and der, from do, to give, are not used. So in the imperative scī, căpe and polle, from scio, căpio, and polleo, do not occur.

REM. 3. A few words, sometimes classed with defectives, are formed by contraction from a verb and the conjunction si; as, sis for si vis, sullis for si vultis, sodes for si audes (for audies.)

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- § 184. (a.) Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and do not admit of a *personal* subject.
- (b.) The subject of an impersonal verb in the active voice is, for the most part, either an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause; but in English the neuter pronoun, it, commonly stunds before the verb, and represents such clause; as, me delectat scribere, it delights me to write. Sometimes an accusative depending on an impersonal verb takes, in English, the place of a subject; as, me miseret tui, I pity thee.
- 1. Impersonal verbs in the active voice are conjugated in the several conjugations like *delectat*, it delights; *decet*, it becomes; *contingit*, it happens; *evenit*, it happens; thus:—

Ind. Pres. Imp. Fut. Perf. Plup. Fut. perf.	1st Conj. delectāt, delectābat, delectābit, delectāvit, delectavěrat, delectavěrit.	2d Conj. děcet, decēbat, decebit, decuit, decuĕrat, decuĕrat,	3d Conj. contingit, contingēbat, continget, contigit, contigërat, contigërat.	evenië, eveniëbat, eveniet, eveniet, eveniet, evenërat, evenërat,
Sub. Pres.	delectet,	deceat,	contingat,	eveniat,
Imp.	delectāret,	decēret,	contingeret,	evenīret,
Perf.	delectavērit,	decuěrit,	contigerit,	evenĕrit,
Plup.	delectavisset.	decuisset.	contigisset.	evenisset.
INF. Pres.	delectāre,	decēre,	contingëre,	evenīre,
Perf.	delectavisse.	decuisse.	contigisse.	evenisse.

2. (a.) Most neuter and many active verbs may be used impersonally in the passive voice, by changing the personal subject of the active voice into an ablative with the preposition a or ab; as,

Illi pugnant; or pugnātur ab illis, they fight. Illi quærunt, or quæritur ab illis, they ask. Cf. § 141, Rem. 2.

(b.) In the passive form, the subject in English is, commonly, either the agent, expressed or understood, or an abstract noun formed from the verb; as,

Pugnātum est, we, they, etc. fought; or, the battle was fought. Concurritur, the people run together; or, there is a concourse.

(c.) Sometimes the English subject in the passive form is, in Latin, an oblique case dependent on the verb; as, favētur tibi, thou art favored.

The following are the forms of impersonal verbs in the several conjugations of the passive voice:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Imp. Fut.	pugnabātur, pugnabītur,	favebitur,	currētur,	veniētur,
Perf.	pugnātum est or	fautum est or fuit.	cursum est or	ventum est or fuit.
•	pugnātum ĕrat or	fautum ĕrat or fuĕrat.	cursum ĕrat or	ventum ěrat or fuěrat,
Fut. p.	pugnātum ĕrit or fuĕrit.	fautum erit or fuërit.	cursum erit or fuerit.	ventum ĕrit or fuĕrit.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Imp. Perf.	pugnētur, pugnarētur, pugnātum sit or fuērit, pugnātum esset or fuisset.	fuĕrit,	fuĕrit,	veniātur, venirētur, ventum sit or fuērit, ventum esset or fuisset.
	1413566	Tuisset.	1415500	Tuisset.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

			curri,	venīri,
Perf.	pugnātum esse or		cursum esse or	ventum essa or
	fuisse,	fuisse,	fuisse,	fuisse,
Fut.	pugnātum īri.	fautum īri.	cursum īri.	ventum īri.

3. In like manner, in the periphrastic conjugation, the neuter gender of the participle in dus, both of active and neuter verbs, is used impersonally with est, etc., and the dative of the person; as, mihi scribendum fuit, I have been obliged to write; moriendum est omnibus, all must die. See § 162, 15, R. 5.

REMARK 1. Grammarians usually reckon only ten real impersonal verbs, all of which are of the second conjugation, viz. decet, libet, licet, liquet, miseret, oportet, piget, pantlet, pudet, and tadet. (See § 169.) Four of these, decet, libet, licet, and liquet occur also in the third person plural, but without personal subjects. There seems, however, to be no good reason for distinguishing the verbs above enumerated from other impersonal verbs. The following are such other verbs as are most commonly used impersonally:-

(a.) In the first conjugation:

Constat, it is evident. Juvat, it delights. Præstat, it is better. Restat, it remains. Stat, it is resolved.

Văcat, there is leisure. Certatur, there is a con-Peccatur, a fault is committed.

Pugnātur, a battle is fought. Statur, they stand firm.

(b.) In the second conjugation:—

Apparet, it appears. Attinet, it belongs to. Displicet, it displeases. Dolet, it grieves. Miseretur, it distresses. Pătet, it is plain.

Pertinet, it pertains. Placet, it pleases. Fletur, we, etc. weep, or, there is weeping. Nocētur, injury is inflicted.

Persuadētur, he, they, etc are persuaded. Pertæsum est, he, they, etc. are disgusted with. Siletur, silence is maintained.

(c.) In the third conjugation:

Accidit, it happens. Conducit, it is useful. Contingit, it happens. Fallit, or it escapes me; Fugit me, I do not know.

Miserescit, it distresses. Sufficit, it suffices. Creditur, it is believed. Curritur, people run.

Desinitur, there is an end. Scribitur, it is written. Vivitur, we, etc. live.

(d.) In the fourth conjugation:—

upon; it is fit. Evenit, it happens.

Convenit, it is agreed Expedit, it is expedient. Dormitur, we, they, etc. sleep.

Scitur, it is known. Itur, they, etc. go. Venitur, they, etc. come.

(e.) Among irregular verbs:—

Fit, it happens. Interest, it concerns. Obest, it is hurtful.

Præterit me, it is unknown to me. Prodest, it avails.

Refert, it concerns. Subit, it occurs. Superest, it remains.

(f.) To these may be added verbs signifying the state of the weather, or the The subject of these may be Jupiter, deus, or cælum, operations of nature. which are sometimes expressed. Of this kind are the following:-

Fulminat, Sit lightens.
Gelat. it Grandinat, it hails.

Lapidat, it rains stones. Lucescit, lt grows light, Ningit, it snows. Pluit, it rains.

Tonat, it thunders. Vesperascit, Advesperascit, ap-Invesperascit, proaches.

Lapidat, ningit, and pluit are also used impersonally in the passive voice.

REM. 2. Impersonal verbs, not being used in the imperative, take the subjunctive in its stead; as, delectet, let it delight. In the passive voice, their perfect participles are used only in the neuter.

REM. 3. Most of the impersonal verbs want participles, gerunds, and supines; but panitet has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gerund. Pudet and piget have also the gerund and future passive participle.

REM. 4. Most of the above verbs are also used personally, but frequently in a somewhat different sense; as, ut Tibéris inter eos et pons interesset, so that the Tiber and bridge were between them.

REDUNDANT VERBS.

§ 185. Redundant verbs are those which have different forms to express the same meaning.

Verbs may be redundant in termination; as, fabrico and fabricor, to frame;—in conjugation; as, lăvo, -āre, and lăvo, -ēre, to wash;—or in certain tenses; as, ōdi and ōsus sum, I hate.

1. The following deponent verbs, besides their passive form, have an active form in o, of the same meaning, but which is, in general, rarely used. A few, however, which are marked r., occur more rarely than the corresponding forms in o.

Abominor, to abhor. Adulor, to flatter. Altercor, to dispute. Amplexor, to embrace. Arbitror, to suppose. Argūtor, to prate. Assentior, to assent. Aucupor, to hunt after. Auguror, to foretell. Aurigor, to drive a chariot. Auspicor, to take the auspices. Cachinnor, r. to laugh aloud. Comitor, to accompany. Commentor, to deliberate. Convivor, to feast together. Cunctor, (cont.), to delay. Dignor, to deem worthy. Depascor, to feed upon. Elucubror, to elaborate.

Fabricor, to frame. Feneror, to lend on in-Fluctuor, to fluctuate. Frustror, to disappoint. Fruticor, to sprout. Impertior, r. to impart. Jurgor, to quarrel. Laciimor, r. to weep. Ludificor, to ridicule. Luxurior, r, to be rank. Medicor, to heal. Měreor, to deserve. Mētor, to measure. Misĕreor, to commiserate. Modĕror, to moderate. Munĕror, r. to bestow. Nictor, r. to wink. Nütrior, r. to nourish. Obsonor, to cater. Opinor, to suppose.

Oscitor, to gape. Pacificor, r. to make a peace. Palpor, to caress. Partior, to divide. Populor, to lay waste. Pūnior, to punish. Ruminor, to ruminate. Sciscitor, to inquire. Sortior, to cast lots. Stabulor, to stable.
Tueor, to defend.
Tumultuor, to be in confusion. Tutor, to defend. Utor, to use. Urīnor, to dive. Velificor, to set sail. Veneror, to reverence. Vocif eror, to bawl.

2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation:-

Boo, -āre, Boo, -ēre, r. } to roar.
Bullo, -āre, Bullio, -īre, to boil.
Cieo, -ēre, to excite.
Denso, -āre, to thicken.
Pervo, -ēre, to boil.
Fervo, -ēre, to boil.
Fervo, -ēre, to boil.
Fodio, -īre, r. } to dig.

Fulgeo, -ēre, r. } to shine.
Lāvo, -āre, r. } to wash.
Lino, -ēre, r. } to anoint.
Nicto, -āre, } to wink.
Nicto, -ēre, }
Nicto, -ēre, }
Sālo, -ēre, } to salt.
Scāteo, -ēre, } to abound.

Sŏno, -āre, } to sound.
Sŏno, -ēre, } to creak.
Strīdo, -ēre, } to creak.
Tergeo, -ēre, } to wipe.
Tueor, -ēri, } to protect.

Those marked r. are rarely used.

Mörior, ŏrior, and pŏtior, also, are redundant in conjugation in certain parts. See in lists §§ 174 and 177.

1. Some verbs are spelled alike, or nearly alike, but § 186. differ in conjugation, quantity, pronunciation, or signification, or in two or more of these respects.

Such are the following:

Abdico, -āre, to abdicate. Abdīco, -ĕre, to refuse. Accido, -ĕre, to fall upon. Accīdo, -ĕre, to cut down. Addo, -ĕre, to add. Adeo, -ire, to go to. Aggero, -āre, to heap up. Aggero, -ere, to heap upon. Allego, -āre, to depute. Allego, -ere, to choose. Appello, -āre, to call. Appello, -ĕre, to drive to. Cado, -ere, to fall. Cædo, -ĕre, to cut. Cēdo, -ĕre, to yield. Căleo, -ēre, to be hot. Calleo, -ēre, to be hard. Căno, -ĕre, to sing. Cāneo, -ēre. to be gray. Căreo, -ēre, to want. Cāro, -ĕre, to card wool. Cēlo, -āre, to conceal. Cælo, -āre, to carve. Censeo, -ēre, to think. Sentio, -īre, to feel. Claudo, -cre, to shut. Claudo, -ĕre, to be lame. Colligo, -are, to bind together. Colligo, -ĕre, to collect. Colo, -are, to strain. Colo, -ere, to cultivate. Compello, are, to accost. Compello, -ĕre, to force. Concido, -ere, to cut to pieces. Concido, -ĕre, to fall. Conscendo, -ĕre, to em-Conscindo, -ĕre, to tear to pieces. Consterno, -are, to terrify. Consterno, -ere, to strew over. Decido, -ĕre, to fall down. Decido, -ere, to cut off. Decipio, -ĕre, to deceive. Desipio, -ere, to dote. Deligo, -are, to tie up. Deligo, -ĕre, to choose. Diligo, -ĕre, to love. Dico, -ere, to say. Dico, -āre, to dedicate.

Ědo, -ĕre, to eat. Edo, -ĕre, to publish. Educo, -āre, to educate. Edūco, -ĕre, to draw out. Eff ĕro, -āre, to make wild. Effero, -re, to carry out. Excido, -ere, to fall out. Excido, -ĕre, to cut off. Fěrio, -īre, to strike. Fèro, -re, to bear. Fērior,-āri, to keep holiday. Frīgeo, -ēre, to be cold. Frigo, -ere, to fry. Fugo, -are, to put to flight. Fugio,-ere, to fly. Fundo, -āre, to found. Fundo, -ere, to pour out. Incido, -ere, to fall into. Incido, ere, to cut into. Indico, -āre, to show. Indīco, ĕre, to proclaim. Inficio, -ere, to stain. Infitior, -ari, to deny. Intercido, -ĕre, to happen. Intercido, -ĕre, to cut asunder. Jăceo, -ēre, to lie. Jăcio, -ĕre, to throw. Lăbo, -āre, to totter. Lābor, -i, to glide. Lacto, -are, to suckle. Lacto, -are, to deceive. Lēgo, -āre, to depute. Lĕgo, -ĕre, to read. Liceo, -ēre, to be lawful. Liceor, -ēri, to bid for. Liquo, -āre, to melt. Liqueo, -ēre, to be manifest.Liquor, -i, to melt. Māno, -āre, to flow. Măneo, -ēre, to stay. Mando, -are, to command. Mando, -ĕre, to eat. Měto, -ěre, to reap. Mētor, -āri, to measure. Mētior, -īri, to measure. Mětuo, -ĕre, to fear. Miseror, -ari, to pity. Misereor, -eri, to pity. Mŏror, -āri, to delay. Mŏrior, -i, to die. Niteo, -ēre, to glitter.

Nîtor, -i, to strive. Obsero, -āre, to lock up. Obsero, -ere, to sow. Occido, -ere, to fall. Occido, -ĕre, to kill. Opěrio, -īre, to cover. Operor, -āri, to work. Opperior, -īri, to wait for Pando, -āre, to bend. Pando, -ĕre, to extend. Păro, -āre, to prepare. Pāreo, -ēre, to appear. Părio, -ĕre, to bring forth. Părio, -āre, to balance. Pendeo, -ēre, to hang. Pendo, -ere, to weigh. Percolo, -are, to filter. Percolo, -ere, to adorn. Permaneo, -ēre, to re-Permano, -are, to flow through. Prædico, -āre, to publish. Prædico, -ere, to foretell. Prōdo, -ĕre, to betray. Prodeo, -ire, to come forth. Recēdo, -ĕre, to retire. Recido, -ĕre, to fall back. Recido, -ere, to cut off. Reddo, -ĕre, to restore. Rědeo, -īre, to return. Refero, -re, to bring back. Refério, -īre, to strike back. Relego, -are, to remove. Relego, -ĕre, to read over. Sēdo, -āre, to allay. Sědeo, -ēre, to sit. Sīdo, -ĕre, to sink. Séro, -ĕre, to sow. Sero, -ere, to entwine. Succido, -ere, to fall under.Succido, -ĕre, to cut down. Vādo, -ĕre, to go. Vădor, -āri, to bind over by bail. Vēneo, -īre, to be sold. Venio, -ire, to come. Vēnor, -āri, to hunt. Vincio, -īre, to bind. Vinco, ere, to conquer. Vŏlo, -āre, to fly. Volo, velle, to be willing.

2. Different verbs have sometimes the same perfect; as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour. Acuo, acui, to sharpen. Cresco, crēvi, to grow. Cerno, crēvi, to decree. Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulcio, fulsi, to prop. Lūceo, luxi, to shine. Lūgeo, luxi, to mourn. Mulceo, mulsi, to soothe. Mulgeo, mulsi, to milk.

Păveo, pāvi, to fear. Pasco, pāvi, to feed. Pendeo, pěpendi, to hang. Pendo, pěpendi, to weigh.

To these add some of the compounds of sto and sisto.

3. Different verbs have sometimes, also, the same supine or perfect participle; as,

Frico, frictum, to rub. Frigo, frictum, to roast. Máneo, mansum, to remain. Mando, mansum, to chew. Pango, pactum, to drive in. Paciscor, pactus, to bargain. Pando, passum, to extend.

Pătior, passus, to suffer. Těneo, tentum, to hold. Tendo, tentum, to stretch. Verro, versum, to brush. Verto, versum, to turn.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, from adjectives, or from other verbs.

I. Verbs derived from nouns or adjectives are called denomina-

1. (a.) Active denominatives are generally of the first conjugation; those which are neuter, of the second. They are usually formed by adding respectively o and eo to the root; as,

FROM NOUNS.

Actives.

Armo, to arm, (arma.)
Fraudo, to defraud, (fraus.)
Nomino, to name, (nomen.)
Numero, to number, (numerus.)

Neuters.

Floreo, to bloom, (flos.)
Frondeo, to produce leaves, (frons.)
Luceo, to shine, (lux.)
Vireo, to flourish, (vis.)

FROM ADJECTIVES.

Albo, to whiten, (albus.) Celebro, to frequent, (celeber.) Libero, to free, (liber.) Albeo, to be white, (albus.) Calveo, to be bald, (calvus.) Flaveo, to be yellow, (flavus.)

(b.) Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derivative; as,

Coacervo, to heap together, (acervus.) Exstirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) Excăvo, to excavate, (căvus.) Ellăqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.)

2. Many deponents of the first conjugation, derived from nouns, express the exercise of the character, office, etc., denoted by the primitive; as, architector, to build; comitor, to accompany; füror, to steal; from architectus, comes, and für.

3. Such as denote resemblance or imitation are called *imitatives*; as, *cornī-cor*, to imitate a crow, from *cornix*; *Græcor*, to imitate the Greeks. Some of these end in *isso*; as, *patrisso*, to imitate a father.

II. Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentatives, inceptives, desideratives, diminutives, or intensives.

- 1. Frequentatives express a repetition, or an increase of the action expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They are all of the first conjugation, and are formed by adding o to the third root; as, $d\breve{o}mo$, $(d\breve{o}m\breve{u}t-)$ $d\breve{o}m\breve{u}to$. So $adj\breve{w}o$, $adj\breve{u}to$; $d\bar{v}co$, dicto; $g\breve{e}ro$, gesto. In verbs of the first conjugation, $\bar{a}t$ of the root is often changed into $\breve{u}t$; as, $cl\breve{a}mo$, to cry, $(clam\bar{u}t-)$ $clam\breve{u}to$, to cry frequently.
- (b.) A few frequentatives are formed by adding to to the first root of the primitive; as, \(\delta g \) (\(\delta g \)-) \(\delta g \) to. So \(\lambda t e o, \(\lambda t \) in sco, \(noscito; \quad quar to.\)
- (c.) Frequentatives, from primitives of the second, third, and fourth conjugations, sometimes serve again as primitives, from which new frequentatives are formed; as, dīco, dicto, dictio; curro, curso, cursito; věnio, vento, ventito. Sometimes the second or intermediate form is not in use.
- (d.) Some frequentatives are deponent; as, minitor, from minor (mināt-); versor, from verto (vers-). So amplexor, sector, lŏquitor, from amplector, sĕquor, and lóquor.
- (e.) When verbs of this class express simply an increase of the action denoted by the primitive, they are, by some grammarians, called intensives.

2. Inceptives, or inchoatives mark the beginning of the action or

state expressed by the primitive.

- (a.) They all end in sco, and are formed by adding that termination to the root of the primitive, with its connecting vowel, which, in the third conjugation, is i; as, căleo, to be hot; călesco, to grow hot.
- So låbo, (āre), låbasco: ingėmo, (ère), ingėmisco; obdormio, (ire), obdormisco. Hisco is contracted for hiasco, from hio, (āre).

(b.) Most inceptives are formed from verbs of the second conjugation.

(c.) Some inceptives are formed from nouns and adjectives by adding asco or esco to the root; as, puerasco, from puer; juvenesco, from juvenis.

Note. Inceptives are all neuter, and of the third conjugation. See § 173. Some verbs in sco, which are not inceptives, are active; as, disco, posco.

- 3. Desideratives express a desire of doing the act denoted by the primitive.
- (a.) They are formed from the third root, by adding *wiio*; as, cono, to sup, (conāt), conātwio, to desire to sup.
 - (b.) Desideratives are all of the fourth conjugation. See § 176, Note.
 - (c.) Verbs in $\bar{u}rio$, having u long, are not desideratives; as, $pr\bar{u}rio$, $lig\bar{u}rio$.
- 4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trifling action. They are formed by adding *illo* to the root of the primitive; as, *conscrībillo*, to scribble, from *conscrībo*.

They are few in number, and are all of the first conjugation.

5. Intensives denote eager action. They are usually formed by adding so, esso, or isso to the root of the primitive; as, făcesso, to act earnestly—from făcio.

So căpesso, incesso, from căpio and incēdo. Concăpisco, to desire greatly, though in form an inceptive, is, in its signification, an intensive.

Note. Verbs of all these classes have sometimes simply the meaning of their primitives.

COMPOSITION OF VERBS.

§ 188. Verbs are compounded variously:-

1. Of a noun and a verb; as, ædifico, belligero, lucrifăcio. See § 103, R. 1.

Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifico, multiplico.
 Of two verbs; as, calĕfăcio, madĕfăcio, patĕfăcio.

REM. In verbs of this class, the first part, which is a verb of the second conjugation, loses its final o; the second part is always the verb facto.

Of an adverb and a verb; as, běněf ácio, málědico, sătăgo, nōlo, negligo.
 Of a preposition and a verb; as, addūco, excólo, prōdo, subrēpo, discerno,

sējungo.

6. Of a preposition and a noun; as, pernocto, irretio.

§ 189. In composition with particles, the vowels a and e and the diphthong a in the radical syllable of the simple verb are often changed in the compound.

1. The following simple verbs in composition change a into e:—

Farcio. Părio. Patro, Arceo. Carpo, Jacto. Spargo, Damno, Candeo. Fătiscor, Lacto, Partio, Sacro, Tracto. Grădior, Mando, Pătior, Capto, Fallo, Scando.

Exc. A is retained in amando, præmando, desacro, and retracto; prædamno, and pertracto sometimes also occur. A is also changed into e in occento from canto, and anhēlo from hālo; comperco also is found.

2. The following, in the first root, change ă and ě into i; viz. ăgo, cădo, ĕgeo, èmo, frango, pango, premo, rego, sedeo, specio, tango.

- 3. These change ă and ĕ, in the first and second roots, into ĭ; viz. sălio, to leap, săpio, tăceo, and těneo.
- 4. These change & into i, and & into i, in all the roots; viz.

 habeo, lacio, lateo, placeo, statuo; cædo, lædo, and quæro.
- 5. The following change \check{a} , in the first root, into \check{i} , and in the third root into e; viz.

căno, căpio, făteor, jăcio, răpio, and ăpiscor.

Exc. (a.) A is retained in circumăgo, perăgo, satăgo; antéhăbeo, posthăbeo, depango, repango, compliceo, and perplaceo. Occano and recano also sometimes occur. E is retained in coemo, circumsèdeo, and supersèdeo. Antécăpio and anticipo are both used; so also are superjacio and superjicio.

(b.) Côgo and dēgo are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ago; dēmo, promo and samo, from de, pro, sub, and emo; prabeo, and perhaps debeo, from

præ, de, and habeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and rego.

Note 1. Făcio, compounded with a preposition, changes ă into î in the first root, and into e in the third; as, afficio, affici, affictum. Some compounds of făcio with nouns and adjectives, change ă into î, and also drop i before o, and are of the first conjugation; as, significo, letifico, magnifico. Spécio forms some compounds in the same manner; as, conspicor and suspicor.

Note 2. Lěgo, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nec, and se, changes è into i, in the first root; as, colligo, negligo, etc.; but with ad, præ, per, re, sub,

and trans, it retains ě; as, allěgo.

Note 3. Calco and salto, in composition, change a into u; as, inculco, insulto. Plaudo changes au into δ ; as, exploido; except applaudo. Audio changes au into δ in občdio. Causo, claudo, and quátio, drop a; as, accūso, rěclūdo, percutio. Jūro changes \bar{u} into \bar{e} in $d\bar{e}j\bar{e}ro$ and $p\bar{e}j\bar{e}ro$, but $d\bar{e}j\bar{u}ro$, also, is in use.

Note 4. In the compounds of caveo, maneo, and traho, a remains unchanged, and so also does α in the compounds of hareo.

NOTE 5. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used:—

Dēfendo, Impědio, Confūto, Instīgo, Conniveo. Offendo, Imbuo, Compello, (-āre,) Rěfūto, Percello, Impleo, Ingruo, and some Experior, Compleo, Induo, Expedio, Appello, (-are,) Congruo, Rěnīdeo, Exuo, others.

For the changes produced in prepositions by composition with verbs see § 196.

PARTICLES.

§ 190. 1. Particles are those parts of speech which are neither declined nor conjugated. They are divided into four classes—adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

NOTE. A word may sometimes belong to two or more of these classes, according to its connection.

ADVERBS.

2. An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

Běne et sapienter dixit, he spoke well and wisely; Cănis egrègie fidelis, a remarkably faithful dog; Nimis valde laudāre, to praise too much. Compare § 277, R. 1.

3. Adverbs, in regard to their signification, are divided into various classes; as, adverbs of place, time, manner, etc., and some belong to either class according to their connection.

4. In regard to their etymology, adverbs are either primitive or

derivative.

REMARK. Among primitive adverbs are here classed not only such as cannot be traced to any more remote root, but also all which are not included in the regular classes of derivative adverbs hereafter mentioned.

PRIMITIVE ADVERBS.

§ 191. The primitive adverbs are few in number, when compared with the derivatives, and most of them are contained in the following lists marked I, II, and III.

I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

ădeo, so far, as far. ălicubi, somewhere. ăliquoversum, toward ădhūc, to this place. ălicunde, from some some place. aliunde, from another adversus, opposite, place. over against, ăliō, to another place. adversum, place. circum, around. exadversus,-um, toward. ăliquă, in some way. ăliā, by another way. aliorsum, toward anothcirciter, on every side. ăliās, in another place. er place. ălibi, elsewhere. aliquo, to some place. circumcirca, all around.

citrā, on this side.
citro, hither.
contrā, over against.
cōnam, before.
dēhinc, henceforth.
deinceps, successively.
deinde, after that.
dēnīquē, finally.
dēnuo, again.
deorsum, downward.
dextrorsum, toward the

right. ea, that way. eadem, the same way. eo, to that place, thither. eodem, to the same place. exinde, after that. extra, without. extrinsecus, from without. f ŏrās, out of doors. f oris, without. hāc, this way. hactěnůs, thus far. hīc, here. hinc, hence. hūc, hither. hūcusquě, thus far. horsum, hitherward. Ibi, there. Ibidem, in the same place. illac, that way. illīc, there. illinc, thence. illo, thither. illorsum, thitherward. illūc, thither. indě, thence. indidem, from the same infrā, below, beneath.
Inībi, in that place.
intrinsēcūs, from within.
intrā, intro,
introsum,
intūs,
istūc, that way.
istūc, there.
istīc, thence.
istō, istūc, thither.
juxtā, near, alike.
neutro, to neither side.
neutrūbi, to neither place,
to neither side.

to neither side. nusquam, no where. pěnitůs, within. poně, post, behind, back. porro, onward. procul, far. prope, propter, near. prorsum, forward. protinus, onward. quā? in which way? quaqua,) what way quācumque, soever. quaque, wheresoever. quālībět, in every way. quo? whither? quousque, how far. quoquam, to some place. quōquō, | whither-quōcumquĕ, | soever.

quorsum? whitherward? quovis, quolibet, to every place. retro, retrorsum, backward, rursum, sloubi, if any where. slounde, if from any place. sinistrorsum, toward the left.

subter, beneath.
super, supra, above, on top.
sursum, upward.
tum, then, in the next
place.

ŭbi? where? ŭbicumque, \ wherever, ŭbiŭbi, wheresoever. ŭbilĭbet, any where, ŭbīquě, (every where. ŭbĭvīs, ultrā, ultro, beyond. unde? whence? undelibet, from every unděvīs, where. undĭquĕ. undeunde, whence-undecumque, soever. uspiam, somewhere, usquam, any where. usque, all the way. usquequaque, in all ways. utrimque, on both sides. utro? which way? utrobī? in which place? utrobīque, in both places. utroque, to both sides. utroqueversum, toward both sides.

place.

every side.

both sides.

Remark 1. (a.) The interrogative adverbs of place, whi? where? unde?

whether? and quā? in what way? have relation to other adverbs formed in a similar manner, thus constituting a system of adverbial correlatives similar to that of the pronominal adjectives. See § 139, 5, (3.)

quoquoversus, toward

(b) As in the case of the pronominal adjectives. See § 139, 5, (3.)

(b) As in the case of the pronominal correlatives, the interrogative and relative forms are alike, beginning with u or qu. The demonstratives are formed from is, which is strengthened by dem, and the indefinite from ditguts. The general relatives and the general relatives of the pronominal adjectives, are made, the former by doubling the simple relatives or by appending to them the termination cumque, 'soever,' and the latter by adding and viso or libit. Thus:

$\operatorname{aing} \mathit{que}, \mathit{vis},$	or noet. In	us:			
Interrog.	Demonstr.	Relat.	Gen. Relat.	Indefin.	Gen. Indefin
ŭbi?	ĭbi,	ŭbi,	ŭbiŭbi,	ălicubi,	ŭbīquě,
	ĭbīdem,		ŭbicumquě,		ŭbĭvīs,
		7.0			ŭbilibět.
undĕ?	indě,	undě,	undeundě,	ălĭcundĕ,	undique,
	indĭdem,		unděcumquě,		unděvīs,
- 9	.=			¥17=	undělibět,
quō?	eō,	quō,	quōquō,	ăliquō,	quōvīs,
= 0	eōdem,	a 1	quōcumquĕ,	¥ 17 =	quōlibět,
quā?	eā,	quā.	quāquā,	ălĭquā.	quāvīs,
	eādem.		guācumguĕ.		guālībět.

(c.) To those answering to ubi? may be added alibi, nullibi, and inibi, the latter being a strengthened form of ibi. In like manner aliunde, utrimque, intrinsecus, and extrinsecus may be added to those answering to unde? and alio to those answering to quo? So also to utro? answer utroque and neutro.

(d.) The demonstratives ibi, inde, and eo are used only in reference to relative sentences which precede; but more definite demonstratives are formed from the pronouns hīc, istē, and illē, answering in like manner to ūbi? undē? and quō? These together with the preceding correlatives are, in the following table, arranged respectively under their several interrogatives ūbi? undē? quō? quā? and quorsum?—Thus:

ŭbi?	undě?	quō?	guā?	quorsum?
bīc,	hinc,	hūc,	ĥāc,	ĥorsum,
istīc,	istinc,	istūc,	istāc,	istorsum,
illīc,	illine,	illūc,	illāc,	illorsum,
ĭbi,	indě,	eō,	eā,	<u></u>
ĭbīdem,	indĭdem,	eōdem,	eādem,	
ălĭbi,	ăliundě,	ăliō,	ăliā,	ăliorsum,
ălicubi.	ălicunde.	ăliquō.	ăliquā.	ăliquoversum.

(e.) Hīc, hinc, hūc, refer to the place of the speaker; istīc, istīc, istūc, to the place of the second person or person addressed; and illic, illinc, illic, to that of the third person or the person or thing spoken of. Cf. § 207, R. 23, (a.) and (d.) (f.) The interrogative adverbs &bi. unde, quo, qua, etc. are often used without a question, simply as adverbs of place; as, In cam partem it iros, atque ibi

futuros Helvetios, ubi eos Casar constituisset.

(g.) In consequence of a transfer of their meaning, some of the adverbs of place, as, hīc, ibi, ŭbi, hinc, indě, hactěnůs, etc., become also adverbs of time, and some of them are used also as conjunctions.

II. Adverbs of Time. illico, immediately.

actūtum, immediately. abhine, from this time. ădeō, so long (as). ădhūc, until now, still. ăliās, at another time ăliquamdiū, for awhile. ăliquando, at some time. ăliquoties, several times. ante, \ before, antea, previously. antehac, formerly. bis, twice. (see § 119). circiter, about, near. cras, comorrow. cum or quum, when. deinceps, in succession. deinde or dein, thereupon, exinde or exin, afterward. deline, from this time. demum, at length. dēnique, lastly. diū, long. dudum, previously. eousque, so long. here or heri, yesterday. hīc, here, hereupon. hinc, from this time, since. hŏdiē, to-day. Ibi, then, thereupon. Identidem, now and then, repeatedly. 14

inde, after that, then. interdum, sometimes. intěrim, meanwhile. iterum, again. jam, now, already. jamdiū, jamdūdum, } long ago. jamjam, presently. jampridem, long since. modo, just now. mox, soon after. nondum, not yet. nonnumquam, sometimes. sæpě, often. nūdius tertius, three days sěměl, once. nunc, now. numquam, never. nūpěr, lately. ōlim, formerly. părumpër, for a short paulispër, time. përendië, two days hence. porro, hereafter, in fupost, posteā, afterwards. posthāc, hereafter. postrīdiē, the day after. pridem, long since. pridie, the day before. protinus, instantly.

quamdiū? how long? quando? when? quandocumque, when-

quandoque, at some time. quater, four times. quoad? quousque? \ how long ? quondam, formerly. quŏtīdiē, daily. quŏtiēs? how often? quum or cum, when. rursŭs, again. semper, always. statim, immediately. subinde, immediately, now and then. tamdiū, so long. tandem, at length. tantisper, for so long. ter, thrice.

toties, so often. tum, tunc, then. ŭbi, when, as soon as. umquam, ever. usquě, until, ever. ŭt or ŭti, as, as soon as when.

III. Adverbs of Manner, Quality, Degree, etc,

ădeō, so, to that degree. admödum, very much. ăliter, otherwise. ceu, as, like as. cur? why? duntaxăt, only, at least. ětiam, also, truly, yes. ětiamnunc, } also, besides. ferme, almost, nearly. fortassě, perhaps. frustrā, in vain. grātīs, freely. haud, not. haudquāquam, by no means. hūcusquĕ, so far. identidem, constantly. immo, nay, on the contrary. ĭtă, so. item, just so, also. Itidem, in like manner. juxtā, equally, alike. măgis, more. modo, only. næ or nē, truly, verily. nē, not. nēdum, much less. nempě, truly, forsooth. nēquāquam, į by no neutiquam, \ means. nimirum, certainly, to be nimis, too much. non, not. omnino, altogether, only. pæně, almost. pălam, openly. păriter, equally. părum, too little. paulātim, by degrees. pěnitůs, wholly. pěrindě, i just as, proindě, sa though. perquam, very much. plērumque, for the most part, commonly. potius, rather. porro, moreover, then. præter, beyond, except. præsertim, particularly. profecto, truly. prope, almost, near. propemodum, almost. prorsŭs, wholly. quam, how much, as. quamobrem, wherefore. quare? why? wherefore? quăsi, as if, as it were. quemadmodum, as. quidem, indeed.
quomodo? how? in what manner? quŏquĕ, also. rite, duly. saltem, at least.

sānē, truly. săt. sat, enough. sătiŭs, rather. scilicet, truly, to wit. sccus, otherwise. seorsum, seorsus, separately. sic, so. sīcŭt, sicuti, so as, as. simul, together. singillatim, one by one. solum, only, alone. tam, so, so much. tamquam, like, as if. tantopere, so greatly. tantum, so much, only. tantummŏdŏ, only. temere, at random. ūnā, together. usquequaque, in all points. in all ways. ŭt, } as. ŭtique, at any rate, certainly. utpote, as, inasmuch as. valde, very much. vel, even. vělůt, as, like as, for vělůtī, example. vicissim, in turn, again. videlicet, clearly, to wit. vix, scarcely.

Rem. 2. Adverbs denoting quality, manner, etc., are sometimes divided into those of, 1. Quality; as, běně, mālě. 2. Certainty; as, certē, plānē. 3. Contingence; as, fortě. 4. Negation; as, haud, nōn, nē, immó. 5. Afirmation; as, næ, quidem, utiquě, nempě. 6. Swearing; as, herclě. 7. Explaining; as, videltct, utipôtě. 8. Separation; as, seorsum. 9. Joining together; as, simül, ūnā. 10. Interrogation; as, cūr? quārē? 11. Quantity or degree; as, sătis, ădeō. 12. Excess; as, perquam, mazimē. 13. Defect; as, párum, pæně. 14. Preference; as, pôtiūs, sătiūs. 15. Likeness; as, itā, sīc. 16. Unlikeness; as, ālītěr. 17. Exclusion; as, tantum, sõlum.

REM. 3. Non is the ordinary Latin negation. Haud signifies either 'not at all,' or 'not exactly.' It is used by the comic and later writers in all combinations, but in the authors of the best age its use is more especially limited to its connection with adjectives and adverbs denoting a measure; as, haud multum, haud magnum, haud parvus, haud mediocris, haud paulo, haud proved, haud late, especially haud sone in connection with other words; as, haud sone fáctle, reshaud sone difficilis, haud sone intelligo; also haud quisquam, haud umquam, haud quāquam. With verbs haud is scarcely used until Livy and Tacitus, except in the common phrase haud scio an, which is equivalent to nescio an.—Nê, (or nê) is the primitive Latin negative particle, signifying no or not. It is used in this sense and as an adverb, (a) with quidem to make an emphatic negation of the word standing between them; as, nê in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns; (b) in composition as in nescio, nēfas, neuter, etc.; (c) with imperatives and

subjunctives used as imperatives; as, $N\bar{e}$ pueri, $n\bar{e}$ tanta animis assuescite bella. Virg. So, also, in wishes and asseverations; as, $N\bar{e}$ id Jupiter sineret, may Jupiter forbid it. Liv. Ne viram, si scio, may I die, if I know. Cic.; and in concessive and restrictive clauses; as, $N\bar{e}$ fuerit, suppose there was not. Cic. Sint misericordes in furibus ceravii, ne illis sanguinem nostram largiantur, only let them not, etc. Cic. So dum ne, dummödo ne, mödo ne, dum quidem ne; and in intentional clauses with ut.-Immo, as a negative, substitutes something stronger in the place of the preceding statement, which is denied; as, Causa igitur non bona est? Immo optima, sed, etc. Cic. It may often be translated by 'nay,' or 'nay even.'

- REM. 4. Quidem gives particular emphasis to a word or an idea, and then answers to our 'certainly' or 'indeed,' but frequently, especially with a pronoun, it merely adds emphasis. Equidem, which is considered as a compound of ego and quidem, is used exclusively in this sense by Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, but by other and particularly by later writers it is used like quidem.—Nempe, 'surely,' is often used ironically, when we refute a person by concessions which he is obliged to make, or by deductions. In other connections it may be translated 'namely.'
- REM. 5. Sic, itā, tam, as also $tant \ddot{o}p\ddot{e}re$, and $\ddot{a}de\ddot{o}$ signify 'so.' Sic is more particularly the demonstrative 'so,' or 'thus'; as, sic se res hābet. Ita defines or limits more accurately, and is equivalent to our 'in such a manner,' or 'only in so far'; as, ita defendito, ut neminen lædas. Frequently, however, ita has the signification of sic, but sic has not the limiting sense of ita.—Tam, 'so much,' generally stands before adjectives and adverbs, and increases the degree; before vowels $tantop\ddot{e}re$ is generally used instead of tan.—Adeo, 'to that degree' or 'point,' increases the expression to a certain end or result. Hence it forms the transition to the conclusion of an argument or to the essential part of a thing; and Cicero employs it to introduce the proofs of what he has previously alleged; as, Id adeo ex ipso senātus consulto cognoscite, and always in such case puts adeo after a pronoun.
- REM. 6. Um quam, 'ever,' and 'usquam, 'somewhere,' like quisquam, require a negation in the sentence, and thus become equivalent to numquam and nusquam. A negative question, however, may supply the place of a negative proposition; as, num tu eum unuquam vidisti?—Uspi am, like quispiam, is not negative, but is the same as ālīcābi, but strengthened, just as quispiam is the same as alīquis. So, also, quōpiam is used affirmatively, and quōquam negatively.—Jam, with a negative, answers to our 'longer'; as, Nīhil jam spēro, I no longer hope for any thing. When used to connect sentences it signifies 'further,' or 'now.'—Usque is commonly accompanied by the prepositions ad, in, ab, or ex. It rarely signifies 'ever and anon'; as, Natūram expellas furcā, tāmen usque recurret. Hor.—Nūper, mōdo, and mox are relative and indefinite.—Dūdum, 'previously,' or 'before,' in relation to a time which has just passed away, may often be translated 'just before.'—Jam dūdum signifies 'long before,' or 'long since.' With the poets jamdūdum contains the idea of impatience, and signifies 'without delay,' 'forthwith'; as, Jamdūdum sumite pænas. Virg.—Tandem, 'at length,' also expresses the impatience with which a question is put.
- REM. 7. Tunc is 'then,' 'at that time,' in opposition to nunc, 'now': Tum is 'then,' as the correlative of quum, 'when;' as, quum omnes adessent, tum ille exorsus est dicère, when all were present, then he began to speak. Without a relative sentence tum signifies 'hereupon,' or 'thereupon'; but a relative sentence may always be supplied. The same difference exists between etiam nunc and etiam tum, 'still,' or 'vet'; and between nunc ipsum and tum ipsum, quummaxime and tummaxime, 'just,' or 'even then'; for etiam nunc, nunc ipsum and quum maxime refer to the present; but etiamtum, tum ipsum, and tummaxime, to the past.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- § 192. Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and participles.
 - I. From Nouns.
- 1. Of these a few end in im (generally ātim), and denote manner; as,

gregatim, in herds; membratim, limb by limb; vicissatim, or more frequently, vicissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, and vicis.

- 2. Some end in *itus*, and denote origin or manner; as, cælitus, from heaven; funditus, from the bottom; rādīcitus, by the roots; from cælum, fundus, and rādīx.
- 3. Some are merely the different cases of nouns used adverbially; as,
- (a.) Some adverbs of time; as, mānē, noctā, diū, tempŏrē or tempŏrī, initiō, princīpiō, mōdo.—(b.) Adverbs of place; as, forīs, forās.—(c.) Adverbs of manner; as, spontē, fortē, grātīs or grātīs, ingrātīs, vulgō, partim.
 - II. From Adjectives and Participles.

By far the greater number of derivative adverbs come from adjectives and participles (present and perfect), and end in \bar{e} and $t\bar{e}r$.

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, are formed by adding \bar{e} to the root; as,

ægrē, scarcely; altē, high; lībērē, freely; longē, far; mīsērē, miserably; plēnē, fully; doctē, learnedly; ornātē, elegantly; from egēr, altus, lībēr, longūs, mīsēr, plēnūs, doctūs, and ornātūs. Běnē, well, is from bŏnūs, or an older form běnūs.

REMARK. A few adverbs in e differ in meaning from their adjectives; as, sānē, certainly; valdē, very; from sānūs, sound, well; and vālīdūs, strong.

Exc. 1. A few adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, add *te*r, *tu*s, im, or atim to the root; as,

nāvitēr, actively; antiquitūs, anciently; divinitūs, divinely; prīvātīm, privately; tuātīm, after your manner; singūlātīm, singūlātīm, singūlātīm, or singultīm, severally; cæsim, carptīm, sensim, stātīm, etc. from nāvūs, antiquūs, divīnūs, prīvātūs, tuūs, singūli, cæsūs, carptūs, etc.

- Exc. 2. Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above terminations with the same meaning; as, dūrē, dūrītēr; firmē, firmītēr; nāvē, nāvītēr; largē, largēfiēr; lūcūlentē, lūcūlentēr; twrbūlentē, twrbūlentēr: so cautē and cautim; hūmānē, hūmānitēr, and hūmānitūs; pūblicē and pūblicitūs.
- 2. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the third declension, are formed by adding tter to the root, except when it ends in t, in which case er to the root, as,

ācritēr, sharply; fēlīcitēr, happily; turpītēr, basely;—ēlēgantēr, elegantly; prūdentēr, prūdently; āmantēr, lovingly; prūpērantēr, hastily; from ācēr, fēlīz, turpīs, ēlēgans, prūdens, āmans, and propērans. So also from the obsolete ālīs for ālās, and propis, (neuter propē), come ālītēr and proptēr for propūtēr.

Exc. From audax comes by syncope audacter; from fortis comes fortiter; from omnis, omnino; from ūber, ūbertim; and from nequam, nequiter.

3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in $i\bar{e}s$; as,

quinquiës, déciës, from quinqué and décem. So töties and quoties, from tot and quot. See § 119.

- 4. Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are,
- (a.) Ablatives in ō, from adjectives and participles of the second declension; as, citŏ, quickly; continuō, immediately; falsō, falsely; crēbrō, frequently; mēritō, deservedly; nēcŏpīnāto, unexpectedly; fortuitō, by chance; auspicāva, auspiciously; consultō, designedly; and a few in ā from adjectives of the first declension; as, rectā, straight on; ūnā, together. In like manner, rēpēntē, suddenly, from rēpens; and pēregre or pēregri, from pērēger.
- (b.) Nominatives or accusatives of the third declension in the neuter singular; as, ${}^*facil{\tilde{e}}$, $difficil{\tilde{e}}$, recens, sublim{\tilde{e}}, and impūn{\tilde{e}}; and some also of the second declension; as, $cel{\tilde{e}}$ -imm, plavim, plavim, plavim, imium, point, and the numeral adverbs, primum, iterum, tertium, quartum, etc. which have also the termination in δ , and so also postremum (δ), and ultimum (δ). The neuter plural sometimes occurs also, especially in poetry; as, multa gemère; tristia uludare; crebra ferire.
- (c.) Accusatives of the first declension; as, bifariam, trifariam, multifariam, omnifariam, etc. scil. partem.
- Note 1. The forms in \bar{e} and \bar{o} from adjectives of the second declension have generally the same meaning, but $v\bar{e}r\bar{e}$ and $v\bar{e}ro$ have a somewhat different sense. $V\bar{e}r\bar{e}$, truly, is the regular adverb of $v\bar{e}r\bar{u}s$, true; but $v\bar{e}ro$ is used in answers, in the sense of 'in truth,' or 'certainly.' In this use it is added to the verb used in the question; as, $adfustin\bar{e}$ heri in convivo? The affirmative answer is ego $v\bar{e}ro$ adfui, or without the verb, ego $v\bar{e}ro$, and negatively, minime $v\bar{e}ro$; and as $v\bar{e}ro$ thus merely indicates a reply, it is often untranslatable into English.— $Cert\bar{u}$, on the other hand, usually takes the meaning of the adjective certus, while $cert\bar{e}$ often signifies 'at least'; as, $vict\bar{i}$ sūmus, aut, si dignitas vinci non $p\bar{o}tes$, fracti $cert\bar{e}$; but $cert\bar{e}$ is frequently used in the sense of 'certainly,' especially in the phrase $cert\bar{e}$ scio.
- Note 2. Some adjectives, from the nature of their signification, have no corresponding adverbs. Of some others, also, none occur in the classics. Such are āmens, dīrūs, dīscors, gnārūs, rūdis, trux, imbellis, immobilis, and similar compounds. In place of the adverbs formed from vētūs and fīdūs, vētustē and antiquē are used for the former, and fīdēliter for the latter, from vētustūs, antiquūs, and fīdēlis.
- III. From the adjective pronouns are derived adverbs of place, etc. (See § 191, Rem. 1.)
- REMARK. The terminations \bar{o} and $\bar{u}c$ denote the place whither, instead of the accusative of the pronoun with a preposition; as, $e\bar{o}$ for ad eum locum; hūc for ad hunc locum; the terminations de and inc denote the place from which; i and ic, the place in which; and \bar{a} and $\bar{a}c$, the place by or through which; as, $e\bar{a}$; $vi\bar{a}$ or parte being understood.
- IV. (a.) A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, subtŭs, beneath; from sŭb; proptër, near; from prope. (b.) Mordicus and versus are derived from the verbs mordeo and verto.
- REMARK. Diminutives are formed from a few adverbs; as, clam, clancălum; primum, primulum; celerius, celeriuscule; sapius, sapiuscule; bene, belle, bellistine.

COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

§ 193. Adverbs are compounded variously:-

- Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridie, quotidie, magnopere, maximopere, summopere, quantopere, tantopere, tantomodo, solummodo, multimodis, quotannis—of postero die, magno opere, etc.
 - 2. Of a pronoun and a noun; as, hodie, quare, quomodo-of hoc die, qua re, etc.
 - 3. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nūdiŭs, sæpēnumero-of nunc dies, etc.
- 4. Of a preposition and a noun; as, comminus, ēminus, illico, öbiter, extemplo, obriam, postmodo, admodum, propědiem—of con, e, and manus; in and locus; etc.
- 5. Of an adjective and a pronoun; as, áliōquī or áliōquīn, cētěrōquī or cētěrōquīn—of áliás and quī, i. e. áliō quō (mŏdo), etc.
- 6. Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, ăliquamdiū, ălicūbi—of ăliquis, diū, and ŭbi; nēquāquam and nēquicquam—of nē and quisquam.
 - 7. Of two verbs; as, īlicēt, scīlicēt vidēlicēt of īrē, scīre, vidērē, and licēt.
- 8. Of an adverb and a verb; as, quōlibět, ŭbivīs, undélibět. So deinceps—from dein and cápio; duntaxat—from dum and taxo.
- 9. Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horsum, retrorsum, sursum—of dē, dextěr, hīc, retro, súpěr, and vorsůs or versůs.
- 10. Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quamdiū, tamdiū, cummaximē, tummaximē, quousquě, sīcut.
- 11. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, dēnuo, imprīmīs, cumprīmīs, apprīmē, incassum—of dē novō, in prīmis, etc.
- 12. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quaproptër, posteā, intēreā, prætēreā, hactēnūs, quātēnūs, ālīquātēnūs, eātēnūs—ot proptēr qua, post ea or eam, etc.
- 13. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, ăbhinc, ădhūc, dērěpentě, interibi, interdia, interdum, persapě.
- 14. Of two or three prepositions; as, insuper, protinus, inde, dein, deinde, perinde.
 - 15. Of a conjunction and an adverb; as, nēcūbi, sīcūbi—of nē, sī, and ălīcūbi.
- 16. Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition; as, ibidem, părumpër, quandōcumquĕ, ŭbīquĕ, utcumquĕ.
- 17. Of three different parts of speech; as, forsitän—of fors, sit, an, quemad-modum, quamobrem, etc.
 - 18. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, nīmīrum, utpčtě.
 - 19. Of an adjective and a verb; as, quantumvis, quantumlibět.

Signification of certain Compound and Derivative Adverbs.

- 1. The adverbs continuo, prôtinus, státim, confestim, súbito, répente and dérépente, actûtum, ilito, lûcet, extemplo, signify in general 'directly' or 'immediately'; but, strictly, continuo means, 'immediately after'; státim, 'without delay'; confestim, 'directly'; súbito, 'suddenly, unexpectedly'; prôtinus, 'farther,' viz. in the same direction, and hence, 'without interruption'; rèpente and dérèpente, 'at once,' opposed to sensim, 'gradually,' (see Cic. Off. 1, 33); actūtum, 'instantaneously,' l. q. eôdem actā; illico, and more rarely ilicet, 'forthwith, the instant,' (Virg. Æn. 2, 424, Cic. Mur. 10); so also extemplo, (Liv. 41, 1).
- 2. Præsertim, præcipue, imprimis, cumprimis, apprime, are generally translated 'principally,' but, properly, præsertim is 'particularly,' and sets forth a particular circumstance with emphasis; præcipue, from præcepio, has reference to privilege, and signifies 'especially'; imprimis and cumprimis, signify 'principally,' or 'in preference to others'; and apprime, 'before all,' 'very,' is used

in pure Latin to qualify and strengthen only adjectives. Admodum properly signifies 'according to measure,' that is, 'in as great a measure as can be,' 'very, exceedingly.' With numerals it denotes approximation, 'about.' Admodum nihil and admodum nullus signify 'nothing at all' and 'no one at all.'

3. Môdo is the usual equivalent for 'only.' Sôlum, 'alone,' 'merely,' points to something higher or greater. Tantum, 'only,' 'merely,' intimates that something else was expected. The significations of sôlum and tantum are strengthened by modo, forming solummodo and tantummodo. Duntaxat, 'only, solely,' is not joined with verbs. It also signifies 'at least,' denoting a limitation to a particular point. Saltem also signifies 'at least,' but denotes the reduction of a demand to a minimum; as, Eripe mihi hunc dolorem, aut minue saltem.

4. Frustrā implies a disappointed expectation; as in frustra suscipere labores. Nequicquam denotes the absence of success, as in Hor. Carm. 1, 3, 21. Incassum, composed of in and cassum, 'hollow' or 'empty,' signifies 'to no purpose';

as, tela incassum jacere.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

- § 194. 1. Adverbs derived from adjectives with the terminations \bar{e} and $t\bar{e}r$, and most of those in o, are compared like their primitives.
- 2. The comparative, like the neuter comparative of the adjective, ends in iŭs; the superlative is formed from the superlative of the adjective by changing ŭs into e; as,

dūrē, dūrius, dūrissimē; fācilē, fācilius, fācillimē; ācritēr, ācrius, ācerrimē; rārō, rārius, rārissime; mātūrē, mātūrius, mātūrissime or māturrime.

- 3. Some adverbs have superlatives in ō or um; as, měritissimō, plūrimum, prīmo or prīmum, potissimum.
- 4. If the comparison of the adjective is irregular or defective, (see §§ 125, 126), that of the adverb is so likewise; as,

běně, měliús, optimě; málě, pějůs, pessimě; părum, minůs, minimě; multum, plūs, plūrimum; —, priús, primō or prīmum; —, ōciús, ōcissime; —, dētěriús, děterrime; —, pòtiús, pŏtissime or pŏtissimum; měritō, —, měritissimo; sătis, sătius, -. Magis, maxime, (from magnus,) has no positive; nuper, nuperrime, has no comparative. Prope, propius, proxime: the adjective propior has no positive in use. The regular adverb in the positive degree from uber is wanting, its place being supplied by ūbertim, but ūberius and ūberrime are used. So instead of tristiter, triste, the neuter of tristis, is used, but the comparative tristius is regular; and from sōcors only sōcordius, the comparative, is in use.

- Diū and sæpě, though not derived from adjectives, are yet compared; diū, diūtius, diūtissime; sape, sapius, sapissime. A comparative temperius, from tempěri or tempori, also sometimes occurs. So secus, secius.
- 6. Adverbs, like adjectives, are sometimes compared by prefixing măgis and maximē; as, măgis ăpertē, maximē accommodatē.

PREPOSITIONS.

- § 195. 1. A preposition is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.
- 2. Prepositions express the relations of persons or things, either to one another, or to actions and conditions; as, amor meus erga te, my love toward thee; eo ad te, I go to thee.

- 3. Some prepositions have the noun or pronoun which follows them in the accusative, some, in the ablative, and some, in either the accusative or the ablative.
 - 4. Twenty-six prepositions have an accusative after them:

ăd, to, towards, at, for. adversus, against, adversum, towards. antě, before. ăpud, at, with, near, before, in presence of. circum, } around, about. circiter, about, near. citra, on this side, within. contrā, against, opposite. ergā, towards, opposite.

extrā, without, beyond. infra, under, beneath. inter, between, among, during. intrā, within. juxtā, near to, next to. ob, for, on account of, before. penes, in the power of, per, through, throughout,

post, after, since, behind. præter, past, before, against, beyond, besides. prope, near by, nigh. propter, near, on account secundum, after, behind, along, next to, accord-

ing to. suprā, above, over. trans, over, beyond. ultrā, beyond.

5. Eleven prepositions have after them an ablative:—

by, during.

pone, behind.

ăb, from, after, by. absque, without, but for. coram, before, in presence of. cum, with.

de, from, down from, after, of, concerning. ē, out of, from, of, by, ex, after. pălam, before, in presence of.

præ, before, for, on account of, in comparison pro, before, for, instead of, according to. sine, without. těnůs, as far as, up to.

6. Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative:

clam, without the knowl- sub, under, about, near. edge of. in, in, on; to, into, against.

subter, under, beneath.

super, above, over; upon, concerning.

REMARK 1. Prepositions are so called, because they are generally placed before the noun or pronoun whose relation they express. They sometimes, however, stand after it. Cf. § 279, 10.

Rem. 2. A is used only before consonants; ab before vowels, and frequently before consonants, though rarely before labials: abs is obsolete, except in the phrase abs te.

E is used only before consonants, ex before both vowels and consonants.

Rem. 3. Versus, which follows its noun, (cf. § 235, R. 3), usque, and exadversus (-um), sometimes take an accusative, simul and procul, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Secus, with an accusative, occurs in Pliny and Cato.

REM. 4. Many of the prepositions, especially those which denote place, are also used as adverbs. Cf. § 191.

Signification and Use of certain Prepositions.

REM. 5. (a.) Ad denotes direction, and answers to the questions Whither? and Till when? as, Venio ad te. Sophocles ad summam senectatem tragaedius ficit. Cic. It also denotes a fixed time; as, ad horam, at the hour; ad tempus aliquid facere,-at the right time. But sometimes ad tempus denotes 'for a time.' Sometimes, also, ad denotes the approach of time; as, ad lucem, ad resperam, ad extremum, towards day-break, etc.; and also the actual arrival of a time; as, ad prima signa vēris profectus, at the first sign of Spring.

- (b.) In answer to the question Where? ad signifies 'near' a place; as, ad urbem esse; ad portas urbis; pugna navālis ad Tenēdum. It is used like in, 'at,' in such phrases as ad ædem Bellönæ, or, without ædem, ad Opis, negotium habēre ad portum.—With numerals it may be rendered 'to the amount of' or 'nearly'; as, ad ducentos. It is also used like circitér without any case; as, Occiss ad hominum millibus quatuor.—The phrase omnes ad ūnum signifies, 'all without exception,' 'every one.'
- (c.) Ad often denotes an object or purpose, and hence comes its signification of 'in respect to'; as, homo ad labores belli impiger. It is also used in figurative relations to denote a model, standard, or object of comparison, where we say 'according to,' or 'in comparison with'; as, ad modum, ad efficiem, ad similitudinem, ad specien alicujus rei; ad normam, etc. ad voluntatem alicujus facere aliquid. Ad verbum significs, 'word for word'; nihil ad hanc rem, 'nothing in comparison with this thing.'
- Rem. 6. Apūd expresses nearness to, and was primarily used of persons as dwas applied to things. Apūd also denotes rest, and dd direction, motion, etc. Hence it signifies 'with,' both literally and figuratively. With names of places it signifies 'near,' like dd; as, Māle pugnātum est āpūd Caudium. But in early writers, āpūd is used for in; as, Augustas āpūd urbem Nolum extinctus est,—at Nola.—With me, te, se, or the name of a person, it signifies 'at the house' or 'dwelling of'; as, Fuisti āpūd Læcum illā nocte.—Before appellatives of persons having authority in regard to any matter, it is translated 'before,' 'in the presence of'; as, āpūd judices, āpūd prætōrem, āpūd popūlum.—It is also used with names of authors, instead of in with the name of their works; as, Apūd Xenophontem, but we cannot say in Xenophonte.
- REM. 7. Adversŭs, $contr\bar{a}$, and $erg\bar{a}$ signify 'opposite to.' Contr \bar{a} denotes hostility, like our 'against'; $erg\bar{a}$, a friendly disposition, 'towards'; and $advers\~us$ is used in either sense. But $erg\bar{a}$ sometimes occurs in a hostile sense.
- REM. 8. $Intr\bar{a}$ signifies 'within,' in regard both to time and place. In regard to place it is used in answer to both questions Where? and Whither? It denotes time either as an entire period, when it is equivalent to 'during,' or as 'unfinished,' when it corresponds with 'under,' or 'before the expiration of.'
- REM. 9. $P \, \check{e} \, r$, denoting place, signifies, 'through,' and also 'in,' in the sense of 'throughout.'—With the accusative of persons it signifies 'through,' 'by the instrumentality of.' It often expresses the manner; as, $p\check{e}r$ literas, by letter; $p\check{e}r$ injuriam, $p\check{e}r$ scēlus, with injustice, criminally; $p\check{e}r$ iram, from or in anger; $p\check{e}r$ simulationem, $p\check{e}r$ speciem, $p\check{e}r$ causam, under the pretext; $p\check{e}r$ occasionem, on the occasion; $p\check{e}r$ ridiculum, in a ridiculous manner.—It sometimes signifies 'on account of'; as, $p\check{e}r$ valetudinem, on account of illness.— $P\check{e}r$ me licet,—so far as I am concerned.
- REM. 10. A or ăb, denoting time, is used with nouns, both abstract and concrete, with the same general meaning; as, ā prīmā ætāte, āb ineunte ætāte, āb initio ætātis, āb infantiā, ā pueritiā, āb adolescentiā; and, ā puēro, ā puēris, āb adolescentiāb, āb infanta, all of which signify 'from an early age.' So also, ā parvis, ā parvido, ā tenēro, ā tenēris unguicūlis, which expressions are of Greek origin.—Ab initio, ā principio, ā primo, properly denote the space of time from the beginning down to a certain point; as, Urbem Rômam ā principio rēges habuēre, i. e. for a certain period after its foundation. But frequently āb initio is equivalent to initio, in the beginning.—The adherents or followers of a school are often named from its head; as, ā Platōne, āb Aristotēle, etc.—In comic writers āb is sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, ancilla āb Andriā.—In a figurative sense it signifies 'with regard to'; as, āb equitāta firmus.—With names of persons it also denotes relationship, and signifies 'on the side of'; as, Augustus ā matre Mugnum Pompeium artissimo contingēbat grādu,—on his mother's side.—Stātim, confestim, rēcens āb alīquā re, 'immediately after.'— Ab itinēre alīquid facēre, to do a thing while on a journey.
- REM. 11. Cum is used not only to designate accompanying persons but also accompanying circumstances; as, cum aliquo ire; hostes cum detrimento sunt

depulsi. It signifies also 'in,' i. e. 'dressed in'; as, cum tunicā pullā sedēre. With verbs implying hostility, it signifies 'with,' in the sense of 'against'; as, cum alīquo bellum gerēre; cum alīquo quēri, to complain of or against.

Rem. 12. Dē commonly signifies 'concerning,' 'about.' Hence tradītur dē Homēro is very different from tradītur āb Homēro; in the former, Homer is the object, in the latter the agent.—In the epistolary style, when a new subject is touched upon, dē signifies 'in regard to,' 'as respects'; as, dē frātre, conf ūdo tta esse, ut semper volui.—It often signifies 'down from'; and also 'of,' in a partitive sense; as, hōmo dē plēbe, ūnus dē popūlo.—From its partitive signification arises its use in denoting time; as, in comitium dē nocte ventre, i. e. even by night, or spending a part of the night in coming; hence multā dē nocte, mediā dē nocte, 'in the depth of night,' in the middle of the night.'—In other cases, also, it is used for ex or āb; as, Audīvi hoc dē parente meo puer. Cic.; especially in connection with emēre, mercāri, conducēre. Triumphum agēre dē Gallis and ex Gallis are used indiscriminately—Sometimes, like sēcundum, it signifies 'in accordance with,' 'after'; as, dē consilio meo:—sometimes it denotes the manner of an action; as, dēnuo, dē integro, afresh; dē improvīso, unexpectedly; dē industriā, purposely:—quā dē re, quā dē causā, quibus dē causis, for which reason or reasons.

Rem. 13. Ex, 'from,' 'out of.' Ex ěquo pugnāre, to fight on horseback; so ex itinère scribère: ex adverso, \bar{e} regiōne, opposite; ex omn parte, in or from all parts.—Ex vino or ex àquá coquère or bibère, i. e. 'with wine,' etc. are medical expressions.—It sometimes denotes manner; as, ex animo luulàre, to praise heartily; ex sententià and ex voluntâte, according to one's wish.—It is also, like $d\bar{e}$, used in a partitive sense; as, \bar{u} nus \bar{e} $pl\bar{e}$ be, \bar{u} nus \bar{e} multis.

Rem. 14. In, with the accusative, signifying 'to' or 'into,' denotes the point towards which motion proceeds; as, in edem ire; or the direction in which a thing extends; as, directly significant in height; so, also, it denotes figuratively the object towards which an action is directed, either with a friendly or a hostile design; as, amor in putriam, odium in malos cives, in milites liberālis; oratio in aliquem, a speech against some one.—It also denotes a purpose; as, pecunia data est in rem militarem. Pax data Philippo in has lêges est, on these conditions.—With words denoting time, it expresses a predetermination of that time, like 'for'; as, invitare aliquem in posterum diem, for the following day. In diem vivere, to live only for the day; in futurum, in posterum, in reliquum, for the future; in aternum, in perpetuum, forever; in præsens, for the present: with all these adjectives tempus may be supplied. In with singuil, expressed or understood, denotes a distribution, and may be translated 'to,' 'for,' 'on,' 'over.'—In singulos dies, or simply in dies, with comparatives and verbs denoting increase, signifies 'from day to day.'—In some phrases it denotes the manner of an action; as, servilem in modum, mūrum in modum; so in universum, in general; in commūne, in common; in vicem, alternately, or, instead of; in alicūjus locum aliquid petere, in the place, or, instead of.

REM. 15. In, with the ablative, signifies 'in,' 'on,' 'upon,' and answers to the question, Where? When a number or quantity is indicated, it signifies 'among,' and is equivalent to inter. It may sometimes be translated 'with,' or 'notwithstanding'; as, In summā copiā oratōrum, nēmo tāmen Cīcerōnīs laudem œquāvīt.—With nouns which by themselves denote time, such as secūlum, annus, mensis, dies, nox, resper, etc., the time, in answer to the question When? is expressed by the simple ablative; but in is used with words which acquire the signification of time only by such connection; as, In consulātu, în principio, in bello; but even with these in is sometimes omitted, but is usually retained in connection with the gerund or gerundive; as, in legendo, in legendis libris. In præsenti, or in præsentiā, signifies 'at the present moment,' for the present.—Est in eo, ut aliquid fiat signifies that something is on the point of happening.

PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

- § 196. Most of the prepositions are used also in forming compound words. In composition, they may be considered either in reference to their form, or their force.
- I. (a.) Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their final consonants, and sometimes change them, to adapt them to the sounds of the initial consonants of the words with which they are compounded. In some words, both forms are in use; in others, the final consonant or consonants are omitted.
- 1. A_i in composition, is used before m and v_i as, $\bar{a}m\bar{o}veo$, $\bar{a}vello$, and sometimes before f in $\bar{a}fui$ and $\bar{a}f\bar{o}re$, for abfui and $abf\bar{o}re$. Ab is used before vowels, and before d_i , f_i , h_i , f_i , h_i , r_i , and s_i as, $abj\bar{u}ro$, abrogo, etc. Abs occurs only before c_i , q_i , and t_i ; as, abscondo, absque, abstineo. In aspello, aspernor, and asporto, the b of abs is dropped; in $auf\bar{e}ro$ and aufugio, it is changed into u.
- -2. Ad remains unchanged before vowels and before b, d, h, m, v. It often changes d into c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t, before those letters respectively; as, accēdo, affero, aggrēdior, allēgo, anxitor, appōno, arrigo, assequor, attollo. Its d is usually omitted before s followed by a consonant, and before gn; as aspergo, aspicio, agnosco, agnātus. Before g, the d is changed into c; as, acquiro.
- 3. Ante remains unchanged, except in anticipo and antisto, where it changes e to i; but antesto also occurs.
- 4. Circum in composition remains unchanged, only in circumeo and its derivatives the m is often dropped; as, circueo, circuitus, etc.
- 5. Cum (in composition, com), retains m before b, m, p; as, combibo, committo, compōno: before l, n, r, its m is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, connitor, corripio: before other consonants, it becomes n; as, condico, conjungo. Before a vowel, gm or h, m is commonly omitted; as, coologoodo, cognosco, cohabito; but it is sometimes retained; as, comedo, comes, comtor. In cōgo and cōgito a contraction also takes place; as, cŏago, cōgo, etc. In combūro, b is inserted.
- 6. Ex is prefixed to vowels, and to c, h, p, q, s, t; as, exeo, exigo, excurro, exhibeo, expedio. Before f, x is assimilated, and also rarely becomes ec; as, ef expedio, expedio. expedio expedio, expedio, expedio expedio, expedio, expedio expedio, expedio expedio, expedio exp
- 7. In remains unchanged before a vowel. Before b, m, p, it changes n into m; as, imbuo, immitto, impōuo: before l and r, n is assimilated; as, illigo, irrētio: before gn, n is omitted; as, $ign\bar{g}rus$. Before the other consonants in is unchanged. In some compounds, in retains d before a vowel, from an ancient form indu; as, indigen, indigen, indolesco. So anciently $induper\bar{a}tor$, for $imper\bar{a}tor$.
- 8. Inter remains unchanged, except in intelligo and its derivatives, in which r before l is assimilated.
- 9. Ob remains unchanged before vowels and generally before consonants. Its b is assimilated before c, f, g, p; as, occurre, off two, oggannio, oppëto. In $\delta mitto, b$ is dropped. An ancient form obs, analogous to abs for ab, is implied in obsolesco, from the simple verb oleo, and in ostendo, for obstendo.
- 10. Per is unchanged in composition, except in pellicio and sometimes in pelliceo, in which r is assimilated before l. In $p\bar{e}j\bar{e}ro$, r is dropped.
- 11. Post remains unchanged, except in pōmærium and pōmērīdiānus, in which st is dropped.

- 12. Præ and præter in composition remain unchanged, except that præ is shortened before a vowel. Cf. § 283, II. Exc. 1.
- 13. $Pr\bar{o}$ has sometimes its vowel shortened, (cf. § 285, 2, Exc. 5) and, to avoid hiatus, it sometimes takes d before a vowel; as, $pr\bar{o}deo$, $pr\bar{o}desse$, $pr\bar{o}digo$. Before verbs beginning with r and l, pro sometimes becomes por and pol; as, porrigo, politiceor.
- 14. Sub in composition remains unchanged before a vowel and before b, d, j, l, n, s, t, v. Before c, f, g, m, p, r, its b is regularly assimilated; as, succedo, suffero, suggero, summoveo, supplico, surripio. Before c, p, and t, it sometimes takes the form sub from subs, analogous to abs and obs; as, suscipio, suspendo, sustollo: b is omitted before s, followed by a consonant; as, suspicio.
 - 15. Subter and super in composition remain unchanged.
- 16. Trans remains unchanged before a vowel. It omits s before s; as, transcendo: in trādo, trādūco, trājicio, and trāno, ns is commonly omitted.
- (b.) The following words are called *inseparable prepositions*, because they are found only in composition:—

Ambĭ or amb, (Greek ἀμφί), around, about. Rěd or rě, again, back. Vē, not. Sē, apart, aside.

- 1. Amb is always used before a vowel; as, ambāges, ambarvālis, ambēdo, ambigo, ambūro: except ampulla, āmicio, and āmhēlo. Before consonants it has the forms ambi; as, ambidens, ambifariam, ambivium: am; as, amplector, ampūto: or an; as, anceps, anfractus, anquīro.
- 2. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with c, p, q, s before a vowel, t, and h; as, discătio, dispōno, disquīro, distendo, dishiasco: but disertus is formed from disero; before f, s is changed into f; as, differo: in dirimo, and diribeo (from dishabeo), s becomes r. Di is prefixed to the other consonants, and to s when followed by a consonant; as, diduco, dimitto, distinguo, dispicio. But both dis and di are used before j; as, disjungo, dijūdico, and before r in rumpo.
- 3. Réd is used before a vowel or h; rè before a consonant; as, rèdâmo, rèdeo, rèdhibeo, rèdiyo, rèdolteo, rèdundo;—rèjicio, rèpono, rèvertor. But rèd is used before do; as, reddo. The connecting vowel i is found in redivivus; and in the poetical forms relliqio, relliquia, and sometimes in reccido the d is assimilated. In later writers re is sometimes found before a vowel or h.
- 4. Sē and vē are prefixed without change; as, sēcēdo, sēcūrus; vēgrandis, vēcors.
- § 197. II. Prepositions in composition usually add their own signification to that of the word with which they are united; but sometimes they give to the compound a meaning different from that of its simples. The following are their most common significations:—
- 1. A, or ab, away, from, down; entirely; un-. With verbs it denotes removal, disappearance, absence; as, aufĕro, abūtor, absum. With adjectives it denotes absence, privation; as, āmens, absonus.
- 2. Ad, to, toward; at, by. In composition with verbs $\check{a}d$ denotes (a) motion to, (not into), as, accēdo; (b) addition, as, ascrībo; (c) nearness, as, assīdeo; (d) assent, favor, as, annuo, arrīdeo; (e) repetition and hence intensity, as, accīdo; (f) at, in consequence of, as, arrīgo. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely inchoative.
 - 3. Ambi, around, about, on both sides.
 - 4. Circum, around, about, on all sides.
- 5. Com or con, together, entirely. In composition with verbs it denotes (a) union, as, concurro, consulo; (b) completeness, as, comburo, conficio; (c) with effort, as, conjuico, conclamo; (d) in harmony, as, consono, consentio; (e) on or over, like the English be—, as, collino, to besmear.

- 6. Contra, against, opposite.
- 7. $D\hat{e}$, off, away, through, over, down; entirely; very, extremely. With verbs $d\hat{e}$ denotes (a) down; as, $d\hat{e}$ mitto; (b) removal; as, $d\hat{e}$ tondeo; (c) absence; as, $d\hat{e}$ sum, $d\hat{e}$ lábbeo; (d) prevention; as, $d\hat{e}$ hortor; (e) unfriendly feeling; as, $d\hat{e}$ spicio, $d\hat{e}$ rideo.—With adjectives $d\hat{e}$ denotes (a) down; as, $d\hat{e}$ clīvis; (b) without; as, $d\hat{e}$ mens.
- 8. Dis, asunder, apart, in pieces, in two; dis-, un-; very greatly. With verbs dis denotes (a) division; as, divido, dilabor; (b) difference; as, discrepo, dissentio; (c) the reverse of the simple notion; as, displiceo, diffido; (d) intensity; as, dilaudo.—With adjectives dis denotes difference; as, discolor, discors.
- 9. E, or ex, out, forth, away, upward, without, -less, un-; utterly, completely, very. With verbs it denotes (a) out; as, exeo, eximo, ēlăbōro; (b) removal of something; as, ēdormio; (c) publicity; as, ēdīco; (d) ascent; as, exsisto; (e) completeness; as, ēdīsco, exūro; (f) with denominative verbs, change of character; as, expio, effero (āro); (g) removal of what is expressed by the noun whence the verb is derived; as ēnōdo; (h) the reversal of the fundamental idea; as, explīco; (i) distance; as, exaudio.—With adjectives formed from substantives it denotes absence; as, exsomnis.
- 10. In, with verbs, signifies in, on, at; into, against; as, inhábito, induo, ingêmo, ineo, illido. With adjectives, un-, in-, in-, il-, ir-, not; as, ignôtus, inhospitālis, immortālis. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives; as, intectus, part., covered, adj., uncovered.
 - 11. Inter, between, among, at intervals.
- 12. Ob, with verbs, signifies to, towards; as, obeo, ostendo; against; as, obluctor, obnuntio; at, before; as, obambulo, obversor; upon; as, occulco; over; as, obduco.
- 13. Per, with verbs, denotes, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite; as, perduco, perficio, perdo: with adjectives, through, very; as, pernox, perlevis.
 - 14. Post, after, behind.
- 15. Præ in composition with verbs denotes (a) before in place; as, præmitto; (b) by or past; as, præfluo; (c) in command; as, præsum, præficio; (d) superiority; as, præsto; (e) before in time; as, prædico, præcerpo; at the extremity; as, præcio.—With adjectives, (a) before in place or time; as, præceps, præscius; (b) very; as, præclatus, præclārus.
 - 16. Præter, past, by, beyond, besides.
- 17. Prō, before, forward, forth, away, down; for; openly; as, prōlūdo, por-rĕgo, prōterreo, prōtĕro, prōcūro, prōfiteor.
- 18. Rě, again, against, back, re-, un-, away; greatly; as, rěfloresco, rěpendo, rěf ěrio, rěf iyo, rěcondo.
 - 19. Sē, without, aside, apart; as, sēcūro, sēpōno, sēcēdo, sēcūrus.
- 20. Sūb, up, from below upwards, under. With verbs sūb also signifies (a) assistance; as, subvenio; (b) succession; as, succino; (c) in place of; as, sufficio; (d) near; as, subsum; (e) secretly, clandestinely; as, surripio, subdūco; (f) somewhat, a little; as, subrīdeo, sūbaccūso.—With adjectives it signifies, slightly, rather; as, sūbobscūrus, sūbabsurdus, sūbācīdus.
 - 21. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.
- 22. Super, above, over, left over, remaining, super-; as, supersedeo, supersum, superstes, supervacaneus.
- 23. Trans, over, across, through; beyond; as, trādo, transeo, transfigo, transalpīnus.
 - 24. Vē, not, without; very; as, vēgrandis, vēcors; vēpallīdus.

REMARK. In composition the preposition seems often to add nothing to the signification of the word with which it is compounded.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 198. A conjunction is a particle which connects words or propositions.

The most usual conjunctions are,

ātque, and, as; than. āc si, as if. adeo, so that, so. anne, whether. annon, whether or not. antequam, before. at, ast, but. at enim, but indeed. atquī, but. attăměn, but yet. aut, either, or. aut ... aut, either ... or. autem, but. cēterum, but, however. ceu, as, like as, as if. cum or quum, since. donec, as long as, until. dum, provided, while, as long as, until. duminodo, if but, if only. Enimvero, in very deed. ěnim, ětěním, for. eo, therefore. ĕquidem, indeed. ergo, therefore. et, and. ět...ět } both...and; ět...quě, } as well...as. ět...něque or něc, on the one hand, but not on the other. ětiam, also. ětiamsi, although, etsī, though. iccirco,) ĭdeo. } therefore. ĭgĭtŭr, ĭtăquě, licet, though, although. modo, provided. nam, namquě, for.

nē, lest, that not. -ně, whether. něque or něc, neither, nor. něque...něque, neither. něc...něc, něque...něc, ...nor. něc...něque, necně, or not. něquě, neither, nor. něquě *or* něc…ět, něquě or něc...quě, } on the one hand, but on the neve or neu, nor, and not. nēve...nēve, (neither ... neu...neu, nī, nīsī, unless. num, whether. præŭt, in comparison with. prout, according as, just as, as. proinde, hence, therefore. propterea, therefore, for that reason. postquam, after, since. priusquam, before. quam, as, than. quamvis, although. quando, quandoquidem, whereas, since. quamquam, although. quapropter, quārē, wherefore. quamobrem, quōcircā, quantumvis, although, quamlibet, however. quasi, as if, just as. -quě, and. -quě...et, both...and; -quě...-quě, as well...as. quiă, because. quin, but that, that not. quippě, because.

quò, in order that. quoad, as long as, until. quod, because, but. quodsī, but if. quominus, that not. quoniam, since, because. quŏquè, also. quum or cum, when, since, because. quum...tum, both ... and. sed. but. sīcut, { so as, just as, as. sī, if. sī mŏdo, if only. sĭmŭl, assoon sĭmŭlāc (-atquĕ) \ as. sin, but if, if however. sīvě or seu, or if. sīvě...sīvě, | whether ... or. seu...seu, siquidem, if indeed, since. tămen, however, still. tămetsī, although. tamquam, as if. tum...tum, both ... and. undě, whence. ŭt, ithat, as that, so that, ŭtī, to the end that. ŭt sī, as if. utrum, whether. -vě, } either, or. věl...věl, either...or. vělůt, | even as, just as, vělůtī, | like as. vēro, truly, but indeed. vērum, but. vēruntamen, yet, notwithstanding. vērum-enim vēro, but indeed.

Conjunctions, according to their different uses, are divided into two general classes,—coördinate and subordinate.

I. Coördinate conjunctions, are such as join coördinate or similar constructions; as,

Luna et stellæ fulgēbant, The moon and the stars were shining. Concident venti, fugiuntque nubes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Difficile factu est, sed conābor tamen, It is difficult to accomplish, but still I will try.

Coordinate conjunctions include the following subdivisions, viz. copulative, disjunctive, adversative, illutive, and most of the causal conjunctions.

II. Subordinate conjunctions are such as join dissimilar constructions; as,

Edo, ut vivam, I eat that I may live. Pyrrhus rex in itinëre incidit in canem, qui interfecti hominis corpus custodiëbat. Mergi pullos in aquam jussit, ut bibërent, quoniam esse nollent.

Subordinate conjunctions include all those connectives which unite subordinate or dependent clauses. These are the concessive, illative, final, conditional, interrogative, and temporal conjunctions, and the causals quod, quun, quonium, etc. To these may be added also the relatives whether pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

The following paragraphs contain a specification of the several conjunctions comprised in each of the preceding subdivisions, and remarks respecting their particular import and use as connectives.

1. COPULATIVE conjunctions connect things that are to be considered jointly; as, δt , δc , $atqu\delta$, the enclitic $qu\delta$, which, combined with the negation belonging to the verb, becomes $n\delta qu\delta$ or $n\delta c$, and, the negation being doubled, $n\delta c$ $n\delta n$ or $n\delta qu\delta$ $n\delta n$, it becomes again affirmative and equivalent to δt . To these are to be added $\delta tiam$ and $qu\delta qu\delta$, with the adverbials δtem and $\delta tidem$ and $\delta tidem$ and $\delta tidem$ are the same properties of the s

REMARK. (a.) Et and qué differ in this, ét connects things which are conceived as different, and qué adds what belongs to, or naturally flows from them. Et, therefore, is copulative and qué adjunctive. Hence, in an enumeration of words, qué frequently connects the last of the series, and by its means the preceding idea is extended without the addition of any thing which is generically different. In connecting propositions qué denotes a consequence, and is equivalent to 'and therefore.'

(b) Ac never stands before vowels, atque chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.—Atque, being formed of ad and que, properly signifies 'and also,' 'and in addition,' thus putting things on an equality, but giving emphasis to the latter. In the beginning of a proposition, which is explanatory of that which precedes, atque or āc introduces a thing with great weight, and may be rendered 'now'; and in answers; as, Cognostine hos versus? Ac memoriter, it is rendered 'yes, and that.' Ac being an abridged form of atque loses some-

what of its power in connecting single words, and its use alternates with that of et; it is preferred in subdivisions, whereas the main propositions are connected by et.

(c.) Neque, compounded of the ancient ne for non and que, is used for et non. Et non itself is used, when only one idea or one word of a proposition is to be negatived; as, patior et non moleste fero; and also when our 'and not' is used for 'and not rather' to correct an improper supposition; as, Si quam Rubrius injuriam suo nomine ac non impulsa two fecisset. Cic. Et non is commonly found also in the second clause of a sentence when et precedes, but neque, also, is often used in this case. Ne non or neque non, in classical prose, is not used like et to connect nouns, but only to join propositions, and the two words are separated. In later writers, however, they are not separated and are equivalent to et.

equivalent to êt.

(d.) Etiam has a wider extent than quŏquĕ, for it contains the idea of our 'even,' and it also adds a new circumstance, whereas quŏquĕ denotes the addition of a thing of a similar kind. Hence ĕtiam is properly used to connect sentences, while quŏquĕ refers to a single word. Etiam signifies 'and further,' quŏquĕ,' and so,' 'also.' Quŏquĕ always follows the word to which it refers, ētiam in similar cases is usually placed before it, but when it connects propositions its place is arbitrary. Et, too, in classical prose, is sometimes used in the sense of 'also.' So often is nōn mŏdo—sĕd ĕt, 'not only—but also,' or 'but even.'

(e.) Copulative conjunctions are often repeated in the sense of 'both-and,' 'as well—as,' 'not only—but also' $El-\bar{e}t$ is of common occurrence; so, in later writers, but rarely in Cicero, $\bar{e}t-qu\bar{e}$; $qu\bar{e}-\bar{e}t$ connect single words, but not in Cicero; que-que, occur for the most part only in poetry, or in connection with the relative.-Negative propositions are connected in English by 'neither—nor,' and in Latin by něquě—něquě, něc—něc, něquě—něc, and rarely by něc—néquě. Propositions, one of which is negative and the other affirmative 'on the one hand—but not on the other,' or, 'not on the one hand—but on the other,' are connected by ět-něquě or něc, něquě or něc-ět, and occasionally by nec or neque—que.

2. Disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be considered sepa-

rately; as, aut, $v \not\in l$, the enclitic $v \not\in$, and $siv \not\in$ or seu.

Remark. (a.) Aut and $v \not\in$ ldiffer in this; aut indicates a difference of the object, $v \not\in$ l, a difference of expression, i. e. aut is objective, $v \not\in$ l, subjective.

Vel is connected with the verb velle, and is generally repeated, $v \not\in$ l-order. this or choose this,' and the single vel is used by Cicero only to correct a preceding expression, and commonly combined with dicam, potius, or etiam.—Hence by ellipsis vel has acquired the signification of the adverb, 'even,' and so enhances the signification of the word modified by it; as, Quum Sophocles vel optime scripserit Electram, where bene is to be supplied before vel, and the latter is used for the purpose of correcting the preceding expression. Cf. § 127, 4. By means of its derivation from velle it has, also, the signification of 'for example' or 'to take a case,' for which $v \ell l u t$ is more frequently used.—(b.) $V \ell$, the apocopated $v \ell l$, leaves the choice free between two or more things, and in

later but good prose vel is used in the same manner.

(c.) Sīvē commonly retains the meaning of sī, and is then the same as vel sī, but sometimes loses it, and is then equivalent to vel, denoting a difference of name; as, Vocabulum sīve appellatio. Quint. The form seu is rarely used by Cicero except in the combination seu potius.—(d.) Aut and ve serve to continue the negation in negative sentences, where we use 'nor'; as, non—aut, where non—neque also may be used. They are used also in negative questions; as, Num leges nostras moresve novit? Cic.; and after comparatives; as, Doctrina paulo aspérior, quam veritas aut natura patiatur. Cic. It is only when both ideas are to be united into one that a copulative is used instead of aut and ve-(e.) 'Either-or' is expressed in Latin by aut-aut, denoting an opposition bethat the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; or vil_{i} denoting that the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; as, Vil_{i} imperatore vel milite me utimini. Sall.— $Sivil_{i}$ — $Sivil_{i}$ is the same as vil_{i} si_{i} — vil_{i} si_{i} and retains the meaning of vil_{i} — vil_{i} si_{i} and retains the meaning of vil_{i} — vil_{i} si_{i} and retains the meaning of vil_{i} — vil_{i} si_{i} and retains the meaning of vil_{i} — vil_{i} si_{i} is to be called; as, Cretum leges, quas sive Jupiter sive Minos sanxit; i. e. I do not know whether I am to say Jupiter or Mines.

3. Comparative conjunctions express a comparison. These are, ŭt or ŭtī, sīcut, vělut, prout, prœut, the poetical ceu, quam, tamquam, (with and without sī, quasī, ut sī, āc sī, with āc and atque, when they sig-

nify 'as.'

REMARK. Ac and atque signify 'as' or 'than' after adverbs and adjectives which denote similarity or dissimilarity; as, æque, juxta, par and pariter, periade and proinde, pro eo, similis and similiter, dissimilis, talis, totidem, alius and aliter, contra, secus, contrarius.— Quam is rarely used after these words, except when a negative particle is joined with alius; as, Virtus nihil aliud est, quam, etc.; and et and que do not occur in this connection.—Ac is used for quam, after comparatives, in poetry and occasionally by late prose writers; as, Artius atque hedera. Hor. Insanius ac si. Id.

4. Concessive conjunctions express a concession, with the general signification 'although.' These are etsī, ětiamsī, tametsī, or tamenetsī, quanquam, quanvis, quantumvis, quanlibet, licet, ut in the sense of even it or although, and quum when it signifies although.

REMARK. Tamen and other particles signifying 'yet,' 'still,' are the correlatives of the concessive conjunctions; as, Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda

voluntas. Cvid. The adverb quidem becomes a concessive conjunction, when it is used to connect propositions and is followed by sed .- Quanquam, in absolute sentences, sometimes refers to something preceding, which it limits and partly nullifies; as, Quamquam quid loquor? Yet why do I speak?

5. CONDITIONAL conjunctions express a condition, their fundamental signification being 'if.' These are sī, sīn, nīsī or nī, sī modo, dum modo, 'if only,' 'if but,' (for which dum and modo are also used alone), dummodo nē, or simply modo nē or dumnē.

REMARK. (a.) In order to indicate the connection with a preceding proposition, the relative quod, which in such case loses its signification as a pronoun, and may be rendered, 'nay,' 'now,' 'and,' or 'then,' is frequently put before si and sometimes before mist and etsi, so that quodsi may be regarded as one word, signifying 'now if,' 'but if,' or 'if then.' It serves especially to introduce something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. It sometimes signifies 'although.' Quodnist signifies 'if then—not,' and quodnist is the contraction of the contra Quod is found also before quum, ubī, quia, quoniam, ne, utietsī, 'nay, even if.' nam, and even before the relative pronoun.

(b.) Nī and nīsī limit a statement by introducing an exception, and thus differ from sī non, which introduces a negative case. It is often immaterial whether mist or st non is used, but the difference is still essential. St non is used when single words are opposed to one another, and in this case sī minus may be used instead of sī non. - If after an affirmative proposition its negative opposite is added without a verb, our 'but if not' is commonly expressed in prose by sī minus or sīn minus or sīn aliter; as, Educ tecum etiam omnes tuos: si minus, quam plurimos. Cic.; rarely by sī non.

6. ILLATIVE conjunctions express an inference or conclusion, with the general signification of 'therefore,' 'consequently.' These are ergo, igitür, itäque, eo, ideo, iccirco, proinde, proptereā, and the relative conjunctions, quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, 'wherefore.'

REMARK. Ergo and igitur denote a logical inference.—Itaque, 'and thus,' expresses the relation of cause in facts.—*Ideo, iccirco*, and *proptěreā*, 'on this account,' express the agreement between intention and action.—*Eō*, 'on this account, or for this purpose, is more frequently an adverb of place.— Proinde, 'consequently,' implies an exhortation.—Unde, 'whence,' is properly an adverb of place.—Adeo, 'so that,' or simply 'so,' is also properly an adverb. Hinc, 'hence,' and inde, 'thence,' continue to be adverbs.

7. Causal conjunctions express a cause or reason, with the general signification of 'for' and 'because.' These are nam, namque, enim, etenim, quiă, quod, quoniam, quippe, quum, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem; and the adverbs nimirum, nempe, scilicet, and videlicet.

REMARK. (a.) Nam is used at the beginning of a proposition, enim, after the first or second word. Nam introduces an objective reason, and enim merely a subjective one. There is the same difference between namque and etenim. Namque, however, though constantly standing at the beginning of a proposition in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, is in later writers often put after the beginning. Enim in the sense of at enim or sed enim is sometimes, by comic writers. put at the beginning of a proposition.—Nam, čnim, and čtčnim are often used in the sense of 'namely,' or 'to wit,' to introduce an explanation of somein the sense of hanery, of the wife to introduce an explanation of something going before. Nimirum, videlicet, and scalicet likewise answer to our 'namely' or 'viz.' Nimirum, compounded of ni and nirum, and signifying 'a wonder if not,' is used as a connective in the sense of 'undoubtedly' or 'surely,' and implies strong confidence in the truth of the proposition with which it is connected.—Videlicet and scalicet introduce an explanation, with this difference that videlicet generally indicates the true, and scilicet a wrong explanation. Sometimes, however, nam, čnim, čtěnim, nimīrum, and vidēlicēt are used in an ironical sense, and scilicēt introduces a true reason.—Nempē, 'surely,' often assumes a sarcastic meaning when another person's concession is taken for the purpose of refuting him.—(b.) Quia and quod indicate a definite and conclusive reason, quoniam, (i. e. quum jam), a motive.—Ideo, iccirco, proptěrea quod, and quia, are used without any essential difference, except that quià introduces a more strict and logical reason, whereas quoniam, signifying now as,' introduces important circumstances.— Quando, quandoquidem, and siquidem approach nearer to quoniam than to quia, as they introduce only subjective reasons. Quandoquidem denotes a reason implied in a circumstance previously mentioned; siquidem, a reason implied in a concession. In siquidem the meaning of si is generally dropped, but it sometimes remains, and then si and quidem should be written as separate words; as, O fortunatam rempublicam, si quidem hanc sentinam ejecerit. Cic.— Quippe, with the relative pronoun or with quum, introduces a subjective reason. When used elliptically without a verb it signifies 'forsooth' or 'indeed.' Sometimes it is followed by a sentence with enim, and in this way gradually acquires the signification of nam.

8. Final conjunctions express a purpose, object, or result, with the signifi-

8. Final conjunctions express a purpose, object, or result, with the signification of 'in order that,' or 'in order that not.' These are ut or ut ut, qut, ut, ut

9. Adversative conjunctions, express opposition, with the signification of 'but.' These are sed, autem, vērum, vēro, at (poetical ast), at enim, atquī, tamen, attamen, sedtamen, vēruntamen, at vēro,

(čnim vēro), vērum čnim, vērum, vēro, cētěrum.

REMARK. (a.) Sed denotes a direct opposition, and interrupts the narrative or argument; autem marks a transition, and denotes at once a connection and an opposition. Porro, 'further,' denotes progression and transition but not opposition, except in later authors.—Vērum has a similar relation to vēro as sēd to autem. Vērum, while it denotes opposition, contains also an explanation. Vēro connects things which are different, but denotes the point in favor of which the decision should be. It thus forms the transition to something more important, as in the phrase, Illud vero plane non est ferendum, i. e. that which I am about to mention. In affirmative answers vēro is often added to the verb; as, Dasne? Do vēro. Hence, when the protasis supplies the place of a question, it is sometimes introduced into the apodosis merely to show that it contains an answer. Hence also vēro alone signifies 'yes,' like sānē, itā, and ētiam.—Enimvēro, 'yes, truly,' 'in truth,' does not denote opposition. It sometimes, like vēro, forms the transition to that which is most important. The compound vērum ēnimvēro denotes the most emphatic opposition.

(b.) At denotes that that which is opposed is equivalent to that which precedes. It frequently follows $s\bar{s}$, in the sense of 'yet,' or 'at least'; as, etsi non sapientissimus, at amicissimus. It is especially used to denote objections whether of the speaker himself or of others. At enim introduces a reason for the objection implied in at.—By atqui, 'but still,' 'but yet,' or 'nevertheless,' we admit what precedes, but oppose something else to it; as, Magnum narras, vix credibile. Atqui sic habet. Hor. So, also, when that which is admitted, is made use of to prove the contrary. Finally, atqui is used in syllogisms, when a thing is assumed which had before been left undecided; in this case it does not denote a direct opposition of facts, and may be translated by 'now,' 'but,' 'but now."—Citerum, properly 'as for the rest,' is often used by later writers for sid.—Contra ea, in the sense of 'on the other hand,' is used as a conjunction. So adeo with a pronoun, when it may be translated 'just,' 'precisely,' 'even,'

'indeed,' or an intensive 'and.'

10. Temporal conjunctions, express time. These are quum, quum primum, út., út primum, úbi, postquam, antéquam, and priusquam, quando, simúlāc or simúlatque, or simúl alone, dum, usquě dum, dônéc, quoad.

REMARK. Ut and ŭbī, as particles of time, signify 'when.' Dum, dōnēc, and quoad signify either 'as long as,' or 'until.' Dum often precedes interea or interim, and both dum and donec are often preceded by the adverbs usquē, usquē eō or usquē ādeo.

11. Interrogative conjunctions indicate a question. These are, num, utrum, $\tilde{a}n$, and the enclitic $n\tilde{e}$. This, when attached to the three preceding particles, forming $numn\tilde{e}$, $utrumn\tilde{e}$, and $ann\tilde{e}$, does not affect their meaning. With $n\tilde{o}n$ it forms a special interrogative particle $non\tilde{e}$. To these add ec and $\tilde{e}n$, as they appear in ecquis, ecquando, and $\tilde{e}num-quam$, and numquid and ecquid, when used simply as interrogative particles.

REMARK. (a.) The interrogative particles have no distinct meaning by themselves in direct questions, but only serve to give to a proposition the form of a question. In direct speech the interrogative particles are sometimes omitted, but in indirect questions they are indispensable, except in the case of a double question, where the first particle is sometimes omitted.—Ecquid and numquid, as interrogative particles, have the meaning of num, quid in this case having no meaning, but they must be carefully distinguished from the interrogative pronouns ecquid and numquid. En, or when followed by a g, ec is, like num, ne, and an, an interrogative particle, but is always prefixed to some other interrogative word.

(b.) In direct questions, num and its compounds numnë, numnam, numquid, numquidnam, and the compounds with ên or ec suppose that the answer will be 'no'; as, Num putas me tan dementem fuisse? But ecquid is sometimes used in an affirmative sense. In general the negative sense of these particles does not appear in indirect questions.

(c.) No properly denotes simply a question, but it is used sometimes affirmatively and sometimes negatively. When no is attached, not to the principal verb but to some other word, a negative sense is produced; as, mene istud potu-isse facère putas? Do you believe that I would have done that? The answer expected is 'no.' When attached to the principal verb no often gives the affirmative meaning, and the answer expected is 'yes.'—Nonno is the sign of an affirmative question; as, Canis nonne hypo similis est?—Ulrum, in accordance with its derivation from ûter, which of two, is used only in double questions whether consisting of two or more. It is sometimes accompanied by no, which is usually separated from it by one or more words; as, Ulrum, taceanne an predicem? In later writers, however, utrumno is united into one word. No is rarely appended to interrogative adjectives, but examples of such use are sometimes found in poetry; as, uterno; quono malo; quantano. In a few passages it is even attached to the relative pronoun.

(d.) An is not used as a sign of an indirect question before the silver age; when so used it answers to 'whether.' It is used by Cicero exclusively in a second or opposite question, where we use 'or'; as, Si sitis, nihit interest utrum aqua sit, an vinum; nec refert, utrum sit aureum poculum, an vitreum, an manus concava. Sen. In direct interrogations, when no interrogative clause precedes, ân, anné, ân vèro are likewise used in the sense of 'or,' that is in such a manner that a preceding interrogation is supplied by the mind; as, Invitus te offendi, an putas me delectări ledendis hominibus? Here we may supply before an putas, etc. the sentence, 'Do you believe this?' —An, after a preceding question, is rendered by 'not,' and it then indicates that the answer cannot be doubtful; as, A rebus gerendis senectus abstrâhit. Quibus? An his, quæ geruntur juventüte ac viribus? Is it not from those kinds of business, which? etc. Here we may suppose aliisne? to be supplied before an his? Is it from other kinds of business, or from those? etc. Such questions may be introduced by nonné, but without allusion to an opposite question, which is implied in ân.

(e.) To the rule that an, in indirect questions, is used exclusively to indicate a second or opposite question, there is one great exception, for it is employed in single indirect questions after such expressions as dubito, dubium est, incertum est; delibiro, hasito, and especially after nescio or hand scio, all of which denote uncertainty, but with an inclination to the affirmative; as, Si per se virtus sine

fortuna ponderanda sit, dubito an hunc primum omnium ponam, If virtue is to be estimated without reference to its success, I am not certain whether I should not prefer this man to all others. Nep. It is not Latin to say dubito annon for dubito an.—Nescio an, or hand scio an are used quite in the sense of 'perhaps,' so that they are followed by the negatives nullus, nemo, numquam, instead of ullus, quisquam and umquam. When the principal verb is omitted, än is often used in the sense of aut; as, Themistodes, quum ei Simonides, an quis alius, artem memoriae polliceretur, etc. In such cases incertum est is understood, and in Tacitus is often supplied.—The conjunction si is sometimes used in indirect interrogations instead of num, like the Greek ii, and it is so used by Cicero after the verb expérior.

Note 1. The conjunctions -ne, -que, -ve, are not used alone, but are always

affixed to some other word, and are hence called enclitics.

Note 2. Some words here classed with conjunctions are also used as adverbs, and many classed as adverbs are likewise conjunctions; that is, they at the same time qualify verbs, etc., and connect propositions; as, Celeris in rebus, quum renit calamitas, tum detrimentum accipitur. In other concerns, when mis-

fortune comes, then damage is received.

Note 3. Conjunctions, like adverbs, are variously compounded with other parts of speech, and with each other; as, atque, (i. e. adque), iccirco or ideirco, (i. e. id-circa), ideo, namque, etc. In some, compounded of an adverb and a conjunction, each of the simple words retains its meaning, and properly belongs to its own class; as, etiam (et jam) and now; itaque, and so; neque or nee, and not.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 199. An interjection is a particle used in exclamation, and expressing some emotion of the mind.

The most usual interjections are,

āh! ah! alas! ăha! aha! ah! haha! ăpăgě! away! begone! ătăt! or atatte! oh! ah! alas! lo! au! or hau! ch! ah! eccě! lo! see! behold! čhem! ha! what! ēheu! ah! alas! ěho! ehodum! ho! soho! eiă! or heiă! ah! ah ha! indeed! ēn! lo! see! behold! eu! well done! bravo! eugě! well done! good! euax! | huzzah! hurrah! ha! hold! ho! ha! ha! he! ha! ha! hei! ah! wo! alas!

hem! oho! indeed! well! hah! alas! alaek! weu! oh! ah! alas!
heu! oh! ho! hore! hark! halloa!
hui! hah! ho! oh!
io! ho! hurrah! huzzah!
io! ol oh! ah!
öh! oh! o! ah!
öh! oh! ol ah!
öhe! ho! halloa! ho there!
öho! oho! aha!
oi! hoy! alas!
păpæ! strange! wonderful!
phy! pish! tush!
pro! or proh! oh! ah!
st! hist! whist! hush!
tatæ! so! strange!
væ! ah! alas! woe!
vah! vaha! ah! alas! oh!

REMARK 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different emotions. Thus vah is used to express wonder, grief, joy, and anger.

REM. 2. Other parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; when used as expressions of astonishment, grief, or horor; and macte and macti, as expressions of approbation. In like manner the adverbs næ, profecto, cito, bene, belle; the verbs queeso, precor, oro, obsecro, amābo, age, agite, cedo, gādes, (for si audes), sīs, sultis, (for si vīs and si vultis), agesis, agedum, and agite dum, and the interrogative quid? what? used as exclamations.

Rem. 3. With the interjections may also be classed the following invocations of the gods: hercüles, hercüle, hercie; or mehercüles, mehercüle, mehercüle, mehercüle, fidius, mecastor, ecastor, ecere, pol, edepol, equirine, per deum, per deum immortālem, per deos, per Jõvem, pro (or proh) Jūpiter, pro dii immortāles, pro deum fidem, pro deum atque hominum fidem, pro deum immortālium (scil. fidem), etc.

SYNTAX.

- § 200. 1. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 2. A sentence is a thought expressed in words; as, Cănes latrant, The dogs bark.
 - 3. All sentences are either
 - (1.) DECLARATIVE; as, Venti spīrant, The winds blow:-
- (2.) INTERROGATIVE; as, Spirantne venti? Do the winds blow?—
- (3.) EXCLAMATORY; as, Quam vehëmenter spirant venti! How fiercely the winds blow!—or
 - (4.) IMPERATIVE; as, Venti, spīrāte, Blow, winds.
- 4. The mood of the verb in the first three classes of sentences is either the indicative or the subjunctive; in imperative sentences it is either the imperative or the subjunctive.
- 5. A sentence may consist either of one proposition or of two or more propositions connected together.

PROPOSITIONS.

- § 201. 1. A proposition consists of a subject and a predicate.
- 2. The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.
 - 3. The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.

Thus, in the proposition, Equus currit, The horse runs, ĕquus is the subject and currit is the predicate.

Note. The word affirm, as here used, includes all the various significations of the verb, as expressed in the several moods.

- 4. Propositions are either principal or subordinate.
- 5. A principal proposition is one which makes complete sense by itself; as,

Phocion fuit perpetuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

6. A subordinate proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate conjunction, is made to depend upon or limit some part of another proposition; as,

Phōcion fuit perpětuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

- 7. Subordinate propositions are used either as substantives, adjectives, or adverbs, and are accordingly called substantive, adjective or adverbial propositions or clauses.
- 8. Substantive clauses are connected with the propositions on which they depend by means of the final conjunctions ut, ne, quo, quin, etc., sometimes by quod, and, in clauses containing an indirect question, by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions. See §§ 262 and 265.

REMARK. A dependent substantive clause often takes the form of the accusative with the infinitive, and in that case has no connective; as, Gaudeo te valère.

- 9. Adjective clauses are connected by means of relatives, both pronouns and pronominal adjectives; as, qui, quālis, quantus, etc. Adverbial clauses are connected either by relative adverbs of place and time, (§ 191, R. 1, (b.), or by temporal, conditional, concessive, comparative, and sometimes by causal conjunctions.
- 10. A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a *simple* sentence; as,

Cădunt folia, The leaves fall. Semirămis Babylonem condidit.

11. A sentence consisting of a principal and one or more subordinate propositions is called a *complex* sentence; as,

Qui fit, ut nëmo contentus vivat? How happens it, that no one lives content? Quis ego sim, me rogitas, You ask me, who I am.

12. A sentence consisting of two or more principal propositions, either alone or in connection with one or more subordinate propositions, is called a *compound* sentence; as,

Spirant venti et cădunt fălia, The winds blow, and the leaves fall.

13. The propositions composing a complex or a compound sentence are called its *members* or *clauses*; the principal proposition is called the *leading clause*, its subject, the *leading subject*, and its verb, the *leading verb*.

SUBJECT.

- § 202. 1. The subject also is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple subject, which is also called the *grammatical* subject, is either a noun or some word standing for a noun; as,

Aves rölant, Birds fly. Tu lègis, Thou readest. A est vöcälis, Λ is a vowel. Mentiri est turpe, To lie is base.

3. The complex subject, called also the *logical* subject, consists of the simple subject with its modifications; as,

Conscientia bone actae vitae est jūcundissima, The consciousness of a well spent life is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscientia bone actae vitae the complex, subject.

4. The compound subject consists of two or more simple or complex subjects to which a single predicate belongs; as,

Lūna et stellæ fulgēbant, The moon and stars were shining. Grammatice mūsicæ junctæ fuerunt, Grammar and music were united. Semper honos menque tuum laudesque manēbunt.

REMARK. Words are said to modify or limit other words, when they serve to explain, describe, define, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

5. Every sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, called its *principal* or *essential* parts: any sentence may also receive additions to these, called its *subordinate* parts.

Complex or Modified Subject.

- 6. The complex subject is formed by adding other words to the simple subject. All additions to the subject, like the subject itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The subject may be modified by adding:-
 - 1. A single word :-
 - (1.) A noun in the same case; as,

Nos consules desumus, We consuls are remiss. Mucius augur multa narrāvit, Mucius the augur related many things.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case, modifying or limiting the subject; as,

Amor multitudinis commovetur, The love of the multitude is excited. Cura mei, Care for me. Viribus usus, Need of strength.

(3.) An adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle; as,

Fügit invida ætas, Envious time flies. Mea mäter est běnigna. Dūcit agmīna Penthěsilēa fürens. Litéra scripta mänet.

2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Sopor in gramme. Oppida sine præsidio. Receptio ad te.

3. A dependent adjective clause introduced by qui, qualis, quantus, etc.; as,

Live fit, quod bine fertur, önus, The burden, which is borne well, becomes light. Literæ, quas scripsisti, acceptæ sunt. Ut, quālis (ille) hābēri vellet, tālis esset. Tanta est inter eos, quanta maxima esse potest, mōrum distantia.

- II. Complex additions. The subject may be modified:-
- 1. By a word to which other words are added.
- (1.) When the word to which other words are added is a noun or pronoun, it may be modified in any of the ways above mentioned.
 - (2.) When it is an adjective it may be modified:-
 - (a.) By an adverb either simple or modified; as,

Erat exspectātio valde magna. Præsīdium non nīmis firmum.

(b.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Major piètate, Superior in piety. Contentionis cupidus, Fond of contentions. Patri similis, Like his father. Nadus membra. Javenes patre digni.

- (c.) By an infinitive, a gerund, or a supine; as,
- Însuetus vinci, Not accustomed to be conquered. Venandi stădiosus. Fond of hunting. Mīrābile dictu, Wonderful to tell.
- (d.) By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Rudis in republica, Unskilled in civil affairs. Ab equitatu firmus. Celer in pugnam. Pronus ad fidem.
 - (e.) By a subordinate clause; as,

Mělior est certa pax, quam spērāta victōria, A certain peace is better than an expected victory. Dábius sum, quid fáciam.

- (3.) When it is a participle, it may be modified like a verb. See § 203.
- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case to which other words are added; as,

De victoria Cæsaris fama perfertur, A report concerning Cæsar's victory is brought.

REMARK 1. As the case following the preposition is that of a noun or pronoun, it may be modified like the subject in any of the foregoing ways.

REM. 2. The preposition itself may be modified by an adverb, or by a noun or adjective in an oblique case; as,

Longe ultra, Far beyond. Multo ante noctem, Long before night. Sexennio post Vēios captos, Six years after the capture of Veii.

3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added.

REMARK. These additions may be of the same form as those added to the principal subject or predicate of the sentence.

- III. Compound additions. The subject may be modified:-
- 1. By two or more nouns in the same case as the subject, connected by a coördinate conjunction; as,

Consules, Brutus et Collatinus, The consuls, Brutus and Collatinus.

2. By two or more oblique cases of a noun or pronoun connected coördinately; as,

Vitæque něcisque potestas. Pěrīculorum et lăborum incitamentum.

3. By two or more adjectives, adjective pronouns, or participles, connected coördinately; as,

Grave bellum perdiuturnumque. Animi teneri atque molles.

- 4. By two or more adjective clauses connected coördinately; as, Et qui fēcēre, et qui facta ăliōrum scripsēre, multi laudantur. Sall.
- 5. By two or more of the preceding modifications connected coordinately; as,

Genus hominum agreste, sine legibus, sine imperio, liberum, atque solūtum.

REM. 1. A modified grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as,

Omnia tua consilia, All thy counsels. Here omnia modifies, not consilia, but the complex idea expressed by tua consilia. So Trīginta nāves longæ. Præpŏtens finitimus rex.

REM. 2. An infinitive, with the words connected with it, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

Virtus est vitium fugere, To shun vice is a virtue.

REM. 3. A clause, or any member consisting of two or more clauses, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

E calo descendit' Nosce te ipsum.' Aguum est, ut hoc făcias.

REM. 4. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposition is put in the nominative, when the verb of the predicate is a finite verb; but when the verb is in the infinitive, the subject is put in the accusative.

Note 1. A verb in any mood, except the infinitive, is called a finite verb.

Note 2. In the following pages, when the term subject or predicate is used alone, the grammatical subject or predicate is intended.

PREDICATE.

- § 203. 1. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple predicate, which is also called the grammatical predicate, is either a single finite verb, or the copula sum with a noun, adjective, and rarely with an adverb; as,

Sol lucet, The sun shines. Multa ănimălia repunt, Many animals creep. Brevis est roluptas, Pleasure is brief Europa est peninsula, Europe is a peninsula. Rectissime sunt apud te omnia.

3. The complex predicate, called also the *logical* predicate, consists of the simple predicate with its modifications; as,

Scīpio fūdit Annībālis cōpias, Scipio routed the forces of Hannībāl. Here fūdit is the grammatical, and fūdit Annībālis cōpias the logical predicate.—So, Rōmālus Rōmānæ condītor urbis fuit.

4. The compound predicate consists of two or more simple or complex predicates belonging to the same subject; as,

Probitas laudātur et alget, Honesty is praised and neglected. Lēti vis răpuit, răpietque gentes. Lucius Catilina fuit magnā vi et avimi et corporis, sed ingenio malo pravoque.

Complex or Modified Preacate.

- 5. The complex predicate is formed by adding other words to the simple predicate. All additions to the predicate, like the predicate itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The predicate may be modified by adding:—
 - 1. A single word ;-
- (1.) A noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. This occurs after certain neuter verbs and passive verbs of naming, ealling, etc. (See § 210, R. 3.); as,

Servus fit libertīnus. The slave becomes a freedman. Servius Tullius rex es. dēclārātus. Aristides justus est appellātus. Incēdo regina.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case; as,

Spe vīvīmus, We live by hope. Deus regit mundum, God rules the world.

(3.) An adverb either simple or modified; as,

Sæpe vēnit, He came often. Festīna lente, Hasten slowly. Lītēræ făcile discuntur. Chrémes nimis graviter cruciat ădôlescentulum.

(4.) An infinitive mood; as,

Căpit discere, He desires to learn. Audeo dicere. Ver esse caperat.

2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Vēnit ad urbem, He came to the city.

3. A dependent substantive or adverbial clause; as,

Vēreor ne reprěhendar, I fear that I shall be blamed. Zēnonem, quum Athonis essem, audičbum fréquenter. Fác cögites.

H. Complex additions. The predicate may be modified:

1. By a word to which other words are added.

REMARK. These words are the same as in the corresponding cases of complex additions to the subject. See § 202, II.

- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case, to which other words are added. See complex additions to the subject, § 202.
- 3. By a subordinate *clause*, to whose subject or predicate other words are added. See complex subject, § 202, II, 3.
- Rem. 2. Each of the words constituting a proposition may be modified by two or more additions not dependent on, nor connected with each other, and consisting either of single words, phrases, or dependent clauses; as, Agamemnonis belli gloria. Paternum odium erga Romanos. Mens sibi conscia recti. Mea maxime intérest, te válère. Ago tibi gratias. Meipsum Inertiæ condemno. Eos hoc môneo. In quo te accaso. Mônet eum, ut suspiciones vitet.
- III. Compound additions. 1. The predicate may be modified by two or more words, phrases, or clauses, joined together by a coördinate conjunction. See Compound additions to the subject, § 202, III.

2. The leading verb is usually either in the indicative or imperative mood, but sometimes in the subjunctive or the historical infin-

itive.

3. The members of a compound sentence are connected by coördinate conjunctions; those of a complex sentence by some relative word, or by a subordinate conjunction.

4. Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a noun and participle, or two nouns, sometimes stand as an abridged

proposition; as,

Bello confecto discessit, i. e. quum bellum confectum esset, discessit, The war being finished, or when the war was finished, he departed. Nil despērandum, Teucro duce.

5. An infinitive may be modified like the verb of a predicate.

6. Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.

7. A word is said to govern another, when it requires it to be put

in a certain case or mood.

8. A word is said to depend on another, when its case, gender, number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.

9. A word is said to *follow* another, when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the sentence.

APPOSITION.

§ 204. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a pronoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case; as,

Urbs Röma, The city Rome. Nos consules, We consuls. So Apud Herodötum, patrem història, sunt innumerabiles fubule, In Herodotus, the father of history, etc. Cic. Lapides silices, flint stones. Liv. Ante me consulem, Before I was consul. Fons cui nomen Arethusa est. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) A noun, thus annexed to another, is said to be in apposition to it. It is generally added for the sake of explanation, identification, or description; sometimes it denotes character or purpose; as, *Lijus figo* countem me adjunxi, I added myself, as a companion of his flight; and sometimes the time, cause, reason, etc., of an action; as, Alexander puer, Alexander when a boy. Cato senex scribere historiam instituit. Suct.

(b.) A noun in apposition, like an adjective used as an epithet, (§ 205, N. 2,) assumes the attribute denoted by it as belonging to the noun which it limits, while the predicate-nominative affirms it. Hence both nouns belong to the same part of the sentence, whether subject or predicate. In cases of apposition, there seems to be an ellipsis of the ancient participle ens, being; qui est,

who is; qui vocātur, who is called; or the like.

REM. 2. If the annexed noun has a form of the same gender as the other noun, it takes that form; as, *Usus* magister *egrégius*. Plin. *Philosophia* magistra *viue*. Cic. If the annexed noun is of the common gender, the adjective qualifying it takes the gender of the preceding noun; as, *Laurus* fidissima custos.

- Rem. 3. The annexed noun sometimes differs from the other in gender or in number; as, Duo fulmina belli, Scipiādas, clādem Libyæ. Virg. Mitylēnæ, urbs nobīlis. Cic. Tulliola, delīciæ nostræ. Id.;—and sometimes in both; as, Nāte, meæ vīres. Virg. Nos, animæ viles, inkumāta infletāque turba. Id.
- REM. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the word in apposition to it; as, Consul dixi, scil. ego; (1) the consul said. And instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua domus, tālis viri. Cic. See § 211, R. 3, (b.)
- REM. 5. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and, in such case, is usually put in the plural; as, M. Antonius, C. Cassius, tribūni plēbis, M. Antonius, C. Cassius, tribunes of the people. Cæs. Publius et Servius Sullæ, Servi filii. Sall. Tib. et Gaius Gracchi. Cic. Orationes L. et C. Anreliorum Orestarum. Id. But sometimes in the singular; as, Cn. et L. Domitius. Cic.
- (1.) So when the nouns are connected by cum, the annexed noun taking the case of the former; as, Dicæarchum vēro cum Aristoxéno, doctos sane hom-Ines, omittāmus. Cic.
- (2.) If the nouns are proper names of different genders, a masculine noun is annexed rather than a feminine, when both forms exist; as, Ad Ptolemæum Cleopatramque rēges legāti missi sunt. Liv.
- Rem. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, Urbem Patăvi locāvit, The city of Patavium. Virg. Plurimus Eridăni annis. Id. Arbörem fici numquam vidërat. Cic. In oppido Antiochiæ. Id. Rupili et Persî par. Hor.
- REM. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it; as, Corinthi Achaiæ urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. Antiochīæ, celěbri urbe. Cic. See § 221, Note, and § 254, Rem. 3.
- REM. 8. (a.) A proper name, after nomen or cognomen, with a verb followed by a dative, is put in apposition either to nomen, etc., or to the dative, the latter by a species of attraction; as, Fons, cui nomen Arethūsa est. Cic. Stirps virīlis, cui Ascanium parentes dizere nomen. Liv. Nomen Arctūro est mihi, I have the

name Arcturus. Plaut. Cui nunc cognomen Iūlo additur. Virg. Cui Egerio indttum nomen. Liv.—(b.) The name may also be put in the genitive; as, Nomen Mercūrii est mihi. Plaut. Q. Metellus, cui Macedonici nomen inditum erat. Vell. Cf. R. 6.—(c.) In Illa otas, cui fecimus Aurea nomen, Ov. Met. 15, 96, Aurea is used as an indeclinable noun, instead of Auream (scil. ætātem); or Aureæ, dat. (scil. ætāti.)

Rem. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Cogitet oratorem institui—rem arduam, Let him reflect that an orator is training—a difficult thing. Quint.—So also a neuter adjective used substantively; as, Triste lāpus stabūlis, The wolf, a sad thing to the folds. Virg. Vārium et mutabile semper femina. Id.

Rex. 10. Sometimes the former noun denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by nouns in apposition to it; as, Onerārie, pars maxima ad Ægimārum,—aliæ adversus urbem ipsam delātæ sunt. The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Ægimurus,—others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictōres et poētæ suum quisque ōpus a vulgo considerāri vult. Cic. In the construction of the ablative absolute, quisque remains in the nominative, though the word to which it is in apposition is in the ablative; as, Multis sibi quisque impērium petentibus. Sall. J. 18. So also, in Liv. 26, 29, quisque remains in the nominative although the word to which it is in apposition is in the accusative with the infinitive.

To this rule may be subjoined that which relates to the agreement of interrogative and responsive words.

REM. 11. The principal noun or pronoun in the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the corresponding interrogative word; as,

Quis hērus est tibi? Amphitruo, scil. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Quid quæris? Librum, scil. quæro. What are you looking for? A book. Quŏtā hōrā venisti? Sextā. At what hour did you come? At the sixth.

Note 1. Instead of the genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is often used, agreeing with its noun; as, Cūjus est liber? Meus, (not Mei.) (See § 211, Rem. 3, (b.) So cūjum for genitive cūjus? Cūjum pēcus? an Melibæi? Non; vērum $Eg\bar{o}$ nis. Virg.

NOTE 2. Sometimes the rules of syntax require the responsive to be in a different case from that of the interrogative; as, Quanti emisti? Viginti minis. Damnatusne es furti? Imo alio crimine. See §§ 214, R. 1, and 217, R. 2.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 205. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns, in gender, number, and case; as,

Bönus vir, A good man. Benigna mäter, A kind mother. Triste bellum, A sad war. Spe amissä, Hope being lost. Bŏnos viros, Good men. Vānæ lēges, Useless laws. Minācia verba, Threatening words. Hæc res, This thing.

So, Mea mäter est benigna. Hæc lēges vānæ sunt.

Note 1. Adjectives, according to their meaning, (§ 104), are divided into two classes—qualifying and limiting—the former denoting some property or quality of a noun; as, a wise man, lead is heavy; the latter defining or restricting its meaning; as, this man, ten cities. To the former class belong such adjectives as denote a property or quality, including all participles and participial adjectives; to the latter, the adjective pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and numerals.

NOTE 2. An adjective, participle, or pronoun, may either be used as an epithet to modify a noun, or, with the copula sum, may constitute a predicate. In the former case the quality is assumed, in the latter it is asserted. In both cases, the rule for their agreement is, in general, the same. See § 210, R. 1.

NOTE 3. Any word or combination of words added to a noun to modify or limit its meaning is of the nature of an adjective.

Note 4. In the following remarks, the word adjective is to be considered as including participles, either alone or combined with the auxiliary sum, and also adjective pronouns, unless the contrary is intimated.

REMARK 1. An adjective agrees also with a substantive pronoun, taking its gender from that of the noun for which the pronoun stands; as, Ipse capellas æger åpo, scil. ëpo, Melibæus; Virg. Fortunāte puer, tu nunc eris alter ab illo. Id. Ui se tötum ei trādēret. Nep. O me misērum (spoken by a man), misēram me (spoken by a woman). So salvi sāmus, salvæ sāmus, scil. nos, masculine or feminine.—In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos frāges consūmēre nāti. Hor.

REM. 2. An adjective may belong to each of two or more nouns, and in such case is put in the plural. If the nouns are of the same gender, the adjective agrees with them in gender, as well as in number; as,

Lupus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd. Sicilia Sardiniaque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,

(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; as,

Păter mihi et mater mortui sunt, My father and mother are dead. Ter. So also uterque in the singular. Procumbit uterque, scil. Deucălion et Pyrrha. Ovid.

(2.) If they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter; as,

His genus, ætas, eloquentia prope æquālia fuere, Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, imperia, nobilitātes, honores, divitiæ in cāsu sīta sunt. Cic. Huic bella, rapīnæ, discordia civilis, grāta fuere. Sall. Anīma atque anīmus, quamvīs integra recens in corpus eunt. Lucr.

Note. When nouns denoting things without life are of the same gender (either masculine or feminine), but of different numbers, the adjective is sometimes neuter; as, Craso et vita et patrimônii partes, et urbs Barce concessa sunt. Just.; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Plerosque velocitas et régio hostibus ignāra tutāta sunt. Sall. Now atque præda remorāta sunt. Id.

(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inanimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometimes takes the gender of that which has life; as,

Numidæ atque signa militāria obscurāti sunt, The Numidians and the military standards were concealed. Sall. Romāni rēgem regnumque Macedŏniæ sua futūra sciunt. Liv. Jāne, făc æternos pācem pacisque ministros. Ovid.

Exc. to Rem. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest; as,

Sŏciis et rēge recepto, Our companions and king having been recovered. Virg. Agri omnes et măria. Cic. Cognitum est sălūtem, līberos, fāmam, fortūnas esse cārissīmas. Cic.

Note. A noun in the singular, followed by an ablative with cum, has sometimes a plural adjective, the gender being the same as if the nouns were connected by et; as, Filiam cum filia accitos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Númitôre sati. Ovid. Filium Alexandri cum matre in arcem custodiendos mitti. Just.

REM. 3. (1.) An adjective qualifying a collective noun is often put in the plural, taking the gender of the individuals which the noun denotes; as,

Pars certare părăti, A part, prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agros dilapsi. ... suam quisque spem exsequentes. Liv. Supplex turba erant sine jūdice tūti. Ovid. This construction always occurs when the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb. See § 209, R. 11.

- (2.) Sometimes, though rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gender of the individuals; as, Pars arduus altis pulvērūlentus equis fūrit. Virg. Pars and dœum—fractus morbo. Ovid.
- (3.) Sometimes other nouns, which only in a figurative sense denote human beings, have by syněsis an adjective of a different gender from their own, referring to the words which they include; as, Lätium Căpuăque agro mulctāti, Latium and Capua were deprived of their land. Liv. Căptta conjūrātiōnis virgis cæsi ac sēcūri percussi sunt. Id. Auxīliā īrāti. Id. So after millia; as, Duo millia Tǧriōrum, crăcībus affixi. Curt. Cf. § 323, 3, (4.)
- REM. 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural noun; as, Maria Tyrrhēnum atque Adriāticum, The Tuscan and Adriatic sease. Liv. Cum légionibus secunda et tertiā. Liv. Circa portas Collinam Esquilinamque. Id. But sometimes the noun is in the singular; as, Inter Esquilinam Collinamque portam. Id. Légio Martia et quarta. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nobis præsente. Plaut. Absente nobis. Ter.
- Rem. 5. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a proposition, when placed after the noun of the predicate, (a) sometimes takes the gender and number of the latter; as, Non omnis error stultitia est diceuda, Not every error is to be called folly. Cic. Gens universa Vēnēti appellāti. Liv. (b.) Sometimes also it agrees with a noun following the subject and in apposition to it; as, Cirinthum, patres vestri, tōtius Graciae lūmen, exstinctum esse voluērunt. Cic.; or (c) with the noun of a subordinate sentence; as, Illūrum urbem ut propugnāculum oppositum esse barbāris. Nep.
- Rem. 6. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative of the same signification, (§ 239, R. 1,) an adjective in the predicate, belonging to that subject, is sometimes put in the dative; as, Mihi negligenti esse non līcuit, i. e. me negligenti esse mihi non līcuit. Cic. Da mihi justo sanctōque vidēri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vōbis nēcesse est fortībus esse vīris. Liv. But the adjective often agrees with the omitted subject; as, Expédit bōnas esse vōbis, scil. vos. Ter. Si cīvi Rōmāno līcet esse Gādītānum. Cic.
- Rem. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Bŏni sunt rāri, scil. hŏmīnes, Good (men) are rare. Cesar suos mīsit, scil. mīlites, Cæsar sent his (soldiers). Dextra, scil. mānus, The right (hand). Implentur pinguis fĕrīnæ, scil. carnis. Virg. Hiberna, scil. castra. Altum, scil. māre. Quartāna, scil. febris. Immortāles, scil. Dīi. Lucr. Amantium, scil. hŏmīnum. Ter. Illum indignanti similem, similenque mīnanti aspičres, scil. hŏmīni. Virg. Tibi prīmas dēfēro, scil. partes. Cic. Respīce prætērītum, scil. tempus, which is often omitted, as in ex quo, ex eo, and ex illo, scil. tempore. Cognōri ex meōrum omnium lītēris, scil. āmīcōrum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Mīssi ad Parthum Armēniumque lēgāti, scil. rēgem. In Tuscūlāno, scil. prædio.

Note 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly homines, but when they are posessives, it is oftener amici, milites, cives, or propinqui.

Note 2. The noun to be supplied is often contained in a preceding clause.

(2.) An adjective in the neuter gender, without a noun, is often used substantively, where, in English, the word thing or things is to be supplied; as,

Bönum, a good thing; mălum, a bad thing, or, an evil. So honestum, vērum, turpe; and in the plural, bona, mala, turpia, levia, calestia, etc. Labor omnia

vincit, Labor overcomes all things. Virg.

Note 1. The Latins generally preferred adding res to an adjective, to using its neuter as a substantive. But sometimes, when res is used, an adjective or pronoun referring to it is put in the neuter instead of the feminine; as, Earum rērum utrumque. Cic. Hūmānārum rērum fortūna plērăque regit. Sall. Illud te rogo, sumptui ne parcas ullā in re, quod ad valētūdinem opus sit. Cic. Omnium rêrum mors est extremum. Cic.

NOTE 2. Instead of thing or things, other words may sometimes be supplied, as the sense requires. With a preposition, neuter adjectives form adverbial phrases; as, A prīmo, At first. Plaut. Per mūtua, Mutually. Virg. In prīmis, In the first place. Ad hoc, or Ad hoc, Moreover, besides.

(3.) Adjectives used substantively often have other adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things.) Plin. Inīquissūmi mei, My greatest enemies. Fāmīliāris meus. Cic. Inīquis noster. Id. Justa fūnebria. Liv. Jūvis omnia plēna. seil. sunt. Virg.

REM. 8. (a.) Imperatives, infinitives, adverbs, clauses, and words considered merely as such, may be used substantively, and take a neuter adjective in the singular number; as, Suprēmum văle dixit, He pronounced a last furewell. Ovid. Dulce et decorum est pro patriā mori. Hor. Velle suum cuique est. Pers. Cras istud quando vēnit? Mart. J. Rědībo actūtum. A. Id actūtum diu est. Plaut. Excepto quod non simul esses, cetera hetus. Hor. (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the adjective, as in Greek, is sometimes in the neuter plural; as, Ut Ænēas pělágo jactetur-nota tibi. Virg.

REM. 9. (a.) Adjectives and adjective pronouns, instead of agreeing with their nouns, are sometimes put in the neuter gender, with a partitive signification, and their nouns in the genitive; as, Multum temporis, for multum tempus; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So, plus *elloquentiae*, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110, (b.) Neuter adjectives are used in like manner in the plural; as, Vāna rērum, for vānæ res. Hor. Plērāque hāmānārum rērum. Sall. Cf. § 212, R. 3, N. 4. But in some such examples, the adjective seems to be used substantively, according to Rem. 7, (2); as, Acūta belli. Hor. Tellāris ŏperta. Virg. Summa pectōris.

Note. The adjectives thus used partitively in the singular, for the most part, signify quantity. See § 212, Rem. 3, Note 1.

REM. 10. A neuter adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the nominative or accusative, both singular and plural; as, Dulce ridentem Lalágen amabo, dulce loquentem. Hor. Magnum stridens. Virg. Arma horrendum sonuere. Id. Multa deos venerāti sunt. Cic. Hödie aut summum cras. Id. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

Rem. 11. (a.) A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Nēmo mīles Rōmānus, No Roman soldier. Liv. Nēmo fére ădölescens. Cic. Vir nēmo bōnus. Id. Cf. § 207, R. 31, (c.) Tiběrim accòlis fluciis orbātum. Tac. Incola turba. Ovid. The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; as, Pělias hasta. Ovid. Laurus Parnāsis. 1d. Ursa Libystis. Virg. Cf. also § 129, 8.

(b.) An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, Neque enim ignāri sumus ante mālorum; i. e. antiquorum or præteritorum. Vicg. Nunc hóminum mores. Plaut.

REM. 12. (a.) An adjective or adjective pronoun, used partitively, stands alone, and commonly takes the gender of the genitive plural, which depends upon it; but when it is preceded by a noun of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive; as, Eléphanto belluarum nulla est prūdentior, No beast is wiser than the elephant. Cic. Indus, qui est omnium ftäminum maximus. Cic. Vēlocissīmum omnium animālium est delphīnus. Plin. See § 212, Rem. 2.—(b.) So also with de, ex, in, apud, inter, etc., with the ablative or accusative instead of the partitive genitive. See § 212, R. 2, N. 4.

(c.) When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, (§ 212, R. 2.) the adjective takes the gender of the individuals which compose it; as, Vir fortissimus nostræ cīvitātis, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maximus stirpis.

REM. 13. (a.) When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genitive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see § 211, R. 3, (b.) and (c.) and R. 4), an adjective agreeing with that genitive is sometimes joined with such possessive; as, Solius meum peccătum corrigi non pôtest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duörum eventus. Liv. Tuum ipsius stădium. Cic. Pugna Rōmāna stābilis suo pondêre incumbentium in hostem. Liv.

(b.) Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, hominis

simplicis. Cic.

REM. 14. An adjective, properly belonging to the genitive, is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends, and vice versa; as, Ædificātionis tuæ constitum for tuum, Your design of building. Cic. Accusantes violāti hospītii fædus, for violātum. Liv. Ad mājora inītia rērum dūcentībus fūtis, for mājorum. Id. Iis nominibus eiritātum, quibus ex civitātibus, etc., for eārum civitātum. Cæs.

REM. 15. (a.) An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes used, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Ecce venit Telamon properus, Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Læti pācem agitābāmus, for lete. Sall. Æneas se mātūtinus agēbat, for māne. Virg. Nec lüpus grēgibas noctur-

nus obambulat, i. e. by night. Id.

(b.) So nullus is used for non; as, Měmini tametsi nullus moneas. Though vou do not suggest it. Ter. Sextus ab armis nullus discedit. Cic. Prior, primus, princeps, propier, proximus, solus, unus, ultimus, multus, totus, and some others, are used instead of their neuters, adverbially; as, Priori Remo augurium vēnisse fertur. Liv. Hispānia postrēma omnium provinciārum perdomita est. Liv. Scavola solos novem menses Asiae proefuit, Only niae months. Cic. Unum hoc dīco, This only I say. Hi. This is sometimes done, for want of an ad-verb of appropriate meaning; as, Pronas cetidit. Ovid. Frequentes convēnerant. Sall.

(c.) In such expressions, tu, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and vice versā; as, Sic vēmas hödierne. Tibuli. Salve, prīmus omnium pārens patriæ appellāte. Plin.

REM. 16. (a.) A noun is often qualified by two or more adjectives; and sometimes the complex idea, formed by a nonn with one or more adjectives, is itself qualified by other adjectives, which agree in gender, etc. with the noun.

- (b.) When several adjectives, each independently of the other, qualify a noun, if they precede it, they are almost always connected by one or more conjunctions; as, Multā et variā et copiosā orātione. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir altus et excellens. Cic. Actio, văria, věhěmens, plēna vērītātis. Id.
- (c.) But when one of the adjectives qualifies the noun, and another the complex idea formed by the first with the noun, the conjunction is always omitted; as, Periculosissimum civile bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Circ. Malam domesticam disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos claros viros nominarem. Cic. Cf. § 202, III., R. 1.

REM. 17. The first part, last part, middle part, etc., of any place or time are generally expressed in Latin by the adjectives prīmus, mēdius, ultīmus, extrēmus, intīmus, infīmus, īmus, summus, suprēmus, rēlīquus, and cēlēra; as,

Mêdia now, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The top of a tree. Suprêmos montes, The summits of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extrêmo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infimo loco natus, Of the lowest rank. Id.

REM. 18. The participle of the compound tenses of verbs, used impersonally in the passive voice, is neuter; as, Ventum est. Cic. Itum est in viscera terra. Ovid. Scribendum est mihi. See § 184, 2 and 3.

RELATIVES.

§ 206. Rem. 19. (a.) Relatives agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person, but their case depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as,

Puer qui legit, The boy who reads. Ædificium quod extruxit, The house which he built. Lītēræ quas dēdi, The letter which I gave. Non sum quālis ēram, I am not such as I was. Hor. So Deus cūjus mūnēre vivimus, cui nullus est simīlis, quem colimus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est externus. Addictus Hermippo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aquilo, quantus frangit ilices. Hor.

NOTE 1. This rule includes all adjectives and adjective pronouns which relate to a noun in a preceding clause. Its more common application, however, is to the construction of the demonstrative pronouns and the relative qui.

NOTE 2. When a pronoun refers to the mere words of a sentence, it is said to be used logically. Qui and is are so used, and sometimes also hic and ille.

(b.) The relative may be considered as placed between two cases of the same noun, either expressed or understood, with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person, and with the latter in gender, number, and case.

(1.) Sometimes both nouns are expressed; as,

Erant omnino duo itinera, quibus itineribus dómo extre possent, There were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home. Cas. Crūdēlissimo bello, quāle bellum nulla umquam burbūriu gessit. Cic. But it is most frequent with the word dies; as, Fóre in armis certo die, qui dies fūtūrus erat, etc. Cic. The repetition of the substantive is necessary, when, for any reason, it becomes doubtful to which of two or more preceding substantives the relative refers.

(2.) Usually the antecedent noun only is expressed; as,

Aumum rēge, qui, nīsi pāret, impērat, Govern your passions, which rule, unless they obey. Hor. Tantæ multītūdīnis, quantam cāpit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus. Cic. Quot cāpītum vīvunt, tötīdem stūdiūrum millia. Hor.

(3.) Sometimes the *latter* noun only is expressed, especially when the relative clause, as is frequently the case, precedes that of the antecedent; as,

Quībus de rēbus ad me scripsisti, cōram vīdēbīmus; scil. de rēbus, In regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cic. In quem prīmum ēgressi sunt lŏcum, Trēja vōcātur; scil, lōcus. Liv. Quantā vi ezpētunt, tantā dēfendunt. Quālesque vīsus ēram vīdisse vīros, ex ordīne tāles aspīcīo. Ovid.

- (a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun; as, Ad quas res aptissimi êrimus, in its pôtissimum ēlābōrābimus. Cic. But the demonstrative is often omitted when its case is the same as that of the relative, and not unfrequently, also, when the cases are different. When the relative clause precedes that of the antecedent, is is expressed only for the sake of emphasis. Hence we find such sentences as, Maximum ornāmentum āmicitive tollit, qui ex eā tollit vērēcundiam. Cic. Terra quod accēpit, numquam sine ūsāirā reddit. Id.—The demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are in like manner often omitted before their corresponding relatives; tālis before quālis, tantus before quantus, inde before unde, jbi before ūbi, etc.
- (b.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, even when the relative clause does not precede; as, Quis non malarum quas amor curas habet, hac interobliviscitur? Hor.
- (4.) Sometimes neither noun is expressed; this happens especially when the antecedent is designedly left indefinite, or when it is a substantive pronoun; as,

Qui bëne lătuit, bëne vixit, scil. hōmo, (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos curriculo pulvērem Olympicum collēgisse jūvat, scil. hōmines, There are whom it delights, i. e. Some delight. Hor. Non hābeo quod te accūsem, scil. id propter quod. Cic. Non sōlum sōpiens vidēris, qui hinc absis, sed ĕtiam beūtus, scil. tu. Cic.

- (5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted; as, Urbs antiqua fuit; Tÿrii tĕnuēre cōlōni, scil. quam or eam, There was an ancient city (which) Tyrian colonists possessed, Virg.; or, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, even when, if supplied, its case would be different; as, Bocchus cum pĕdūtībus, quos f īlius ējus adduzērat, nēque in priōre pugnā adfuērant, Rōmānos învādunt, for et qui non in priōre, etc. Sall.
- (6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Quum scribas et ăliquid âgas eōrum, quorum consuesti, for quæ. Cic. Raptim quibus quisque potérat élâtis, exibant, for iis, quæ quisque efferre potérat, élâtis. Liv.
- (b.) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative, the substantive either preceding or following the pronoun; as, Urbein quain stâtuo restra est, for urbs. Virg. Eunüchum quem dědisti nöbis, quas turbae dit! for Eunächus. Ter. Naucratem quem convěntre volui, in nav non èrdžt! for Eunächus. Ter. Naucratem quem convěntre volui, in nav non èrdžt. Plaut. Atque álii, quorum cômædia prisca virorum est, for atque álii viri, quorum est. Hor. Illi, scripta quibus cômædia prisca viris est, for illi viri, quibus. Id. Quos pueros miséram, ēpistólum mihi attálērunt. Cic.

These constructions are said to occur by attraction.

- (7.) (a.) An adjective, which properly belongs to the antecedent, is sometimes placed in the relative clause, and agrees with the relative; as, Inter jõcos, quos inconditos jāciunt, for jõcos inconditos, quos, etc. Amidst the rude jests which they utter. Liv. Verbis, quæ magna võlant. Virg. Cälöre, quem multum häbet. Čic.
- (b.) This is the common position of the adjective, when it is a numeral, a comparative, or a superlative; as, Nocte quam in terris ultiman ēgit, The last night which he spent upon earth. Æscūlāpius, qui prīmus vulnus oblīgāvisse dīcitur. Cic. Consiliis pūre, quæ nunc pulcherrima Nautes dat šenior, Listen to the excellent advice, which, etc. Virg. Some instances occur in which an adjective belonging to the relative clause, is placed in that of the antecedent; as, Quum vēnissent ad vāda Volaterrāna, quæ nōminantur, Which are called Volaterran. Cic.
- (8.) When to the relative or demonstrative is joined a noun explanatory of its antecedent, but of a different gender or number, the relative or demonstrative usually agrees with that noun; as,

Santônes non longe a Tôlôsātium f īnībus absunt, quæ cīvītas est in provinciā, The Santones are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the province. Cas. Ante comitia, quod tempus haud longe aberat. Sall. Rome fanum Diance populi Latini cum populo Romano fecerunt: ea érat confessio caput rerum Romam esse; i. e. that thing or that act. Liv. Si omnia facienda sunt, quæ ámīci vēlint, non ámīcitiæ tāles, sed conjūrātiones pūtandas sunt; i. e. such things or such connections. Cic. So, Ista quidem vis, Surely this is force. Ea ipsa causa belli fuit, for id ipsam. Hither also may be referred such explanatory sentences as, Qui meus amor in te est, Such is my love for you. Cic.

(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same

object, but of different genders, it agrees with either; as,

Flumen est Arar quod in Rhodanum influit. Cæs. Ad flumen Oxum perventum est, qui turbidus semper est. Curt.

(10.) When, in a relative clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, esteeming, etc., a predicate-noun occurs of a different gender from the antecedent, the relative commonly agrees with the latter; but when the preceding noun is to be explained and distinguished from another, the relative agrees with the former; as,

Năture vultus quem dixere Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Genus hominum quod Helotes vocătur. Nep. Animal, quem vocāmus hominem, The animal whom we call man. Cic. Locus in carcere, quod Tullianum appellatur. Sall. Pécuniarum conquisitio; eos esse belli civilis nervos dictitans Mucianus. Tac.

(11.) The relative sometimes agrees with a noun, either equivalent in sense to the antecedent, or only implied in the preceding clause; as,

Abundantia earum rerum, quæ mortāles prīma putant, An abundance of those things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Cf. § 205, R. 7, (2.) N. 1. things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Ct. 9 200, R. 1, (2.) R. 1. But sometimes when a neuter adjective used substantively has preceded, res with a relative follows; as, Permulta sunt, quæ dict possunt, quā re intelligātur. Cic. Fātāle monstrum, quæ, etc., scil. Cleopātra. Hor. Cf. § 323, 3, (4.) (a.) A relative or demonstrative pronoun, referring to a collective noun, or to a noun which only in a figurative sense denotes a human being, sometimes takes the gender and number of the individuals which the noun implies; as, Equitātum, quos. Sall. Gēnus, qui prēmuntur. Cic. Sēnātus—ii. Sall. (b.) A pronoun in the plural often follows a noun in the singular, referring not only to the noun but to the class of persons or things to which it belones:

not only to the noun but to the class of persons or things to which it belongs; as, Dēmocritum omittāmus; nihil est enim apud istos, quod, etc. i. e. with Democritus and his followers. Cic. Dionysius negavit se jūre illo nigro quod cænæs caput erat, delectātum. Tum is, qui illa coxerat, etc. Id.

- (12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun; as, Onnes laudāre fortūnas meas, qui nātum tāli ingēnio prædītum hābērem; scil. mei, All were extolling my fortune, who, etc. Ter. Id mea minime rēfert, qui sum nātu maximus. Id. Nostrum consilium laudandum est, qui nōluērim, etc. Cic.; or in a possessive adjective; as, Servīli tumultu, quos, etc. Cæs.
- (13.) (a.) Sometimes the antecedent is a proposition; the relative then is commonly neuter; as, Postrēmo, quod difficillimum inter mortāles, gloriā invidiam vicisti, Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, which, among men, is most difficult. Sall. Equidem exspectabam jum tuas literas, idque cum multis.
- (b.) In such instances, id is generally placed before the relative pronoun, refering to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sive, id quod constat, Plātōnis stūdiōsus audiendi fuit. Cic. Diem consūmi võlēbant, id quod fēcērunt. Id.

 (c.) Sometimes is, referring to a clause, agrees with a noun following; as,

Idem velle atque idem nolle, ea demum firma amicitia est. Sall.

- (14.) Quod, relating to a preceding statement, and serving the purpose of transition, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence after a period, where it may be translated by 'nay,' 'now,' or 'and.' It is thus used especially before si, etsi, and nisi; as, Quodsi illinc inānis profi ūgisses, tāmen ista tua fūga nēfārna jūdicārētur, i. e. and even if you had fled without taking any thing with you, still, etc. Cic. Verr. 1, 14. Quodsi, 'if then,' is especially used in introducing something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. Sometimes also it is equivalent to 'although.' Quodnisi signifies 'if then—not'; as, Quodnīsi ego meo adventu illius conātus āliquantūlum repressissem, tam multos, etc. Quodetsi is 'nay, even if'; as, Quodetsi ingēnis magnis prediti quīdam dīcendi copiam sīne rātione conšēquentur, ars tāmen est dux certiror.—Qvod is found also before quum, ūbi, quia, quōniam, nē and ūtīnam, where the conjunction alone would seen to be sufficient; as, Quod ūtīnam illum, cūjus impio fācinore in has mīsērias projectus sum, eādem hæc simūlantem videam. Sall. It is so used even before a relative in Cic. Phil. 10, 4, fin.—Quod, in such examples, seems to be an accusative, with propter or ad understood.
- (15.) (a.) A relative is always plural, when referring to two or more nouns in the singular. If the nouns are of different genders, the gender of the relative is determined by Rein. 2, page 185; as, Ninus et Semīrāmis, qui Bābilon condidêrant, Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Crebro funāli et tībīcīne, quæ sībī sumpsērat. Cic. Ex summā lætītīā atque lascīviā, quæ disturna quies pēpērērat. Sall. Nāves et captīvos quæ ad Chium capta ērant. Liv.

(b.) If the antecedents are of different persons, the relative follows the first person rather than the second or third, and the second rather than the third; as, Tu et pâter, qui in contrio êrâtis. Ego et tu, qui êrâmus. Cf. § 209, R. 12, (7.)

- (16.) The relative adjectives quot, quantus, quālis, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the antecedent clause, the corresponding demonstrative words, tot, tantus, tālis; but these are also often omitted. Frequently also the order of the clauses is reversed, so that the relative clause precedes the demonstrative.
- (17.) Qui, at the beginning of a sentence, is often translated like a demonstrative; as, Quæ quum ita sint, Since these (things) are so. Cic.
- (18.) The relative qui with sum and either a nominative or the ablative of quality, is used in explanatory clauses, instead of pro, 'in accordance with,' or 'according to'; thus, instead of Tū, pro tuā prūdentiā, quīd optīmum factusit, ridēbis. Čic., we may say, que tua est prūdentia, or, quā prūdentiā ēs. So, Vēlis tantummódo, quæ tua virtus, expugnūbis. Hor. Quā prūdentiā es, nihil te fūgiet. Cic.
- (19.) A relative clause is sometimes used for the purpose of denoting by circumlocution the person of the agent in a definite but not permanent condition; as, li, qui audiunt, or qui adsunt, i. e. the hearers, the persons present. So, also, a relative clause is used for the English expression 'above mentioned'; as, Ex libris quos dizi or quos ante (sopra) laudāvi: and the English 'so called,' or 'what is called,' is expressed by quem, quam, quod võcant, or by qui, que, quod võcatur, dictur, etc. as, Nec Hermas hos, quos võcant, impōni (Athēnis) licēbat. Cic. Vestra, quæ dicitur, vīta, mors est. Id.
- (20.) Relative and demonstrative adverbs (see § 191, R. 1), are frequently used instead of relative and demonstrative pronouns with prepositions; as, Is, unde te audisse dreis, i. e. a quo. Cic. Divitive dipud illos sunt, aut übi illi volunt, i. e. apud quos. Sall. Huic ab ādolescentiā bella intestīna, cædes, rāpinæ, discordia cīvīlis, grāta fuēre, ībique jūventūtem exercuit, i. e. in iis, in these things. Sall.
- (21.) With quam qui and the superlative after tam the verb of the relative clause is sometimes omitted; as, Tam mihi grātum id ērit, quam quod grātissīmum. Cic. Tam ēnim sum amīcus reipūblica, quam qui maxīme. Id. Tam sum mītis, quam qui lēnissīmus. Id. So also with ut qui without tam; as, Te semper sic colam et tuēbor, ut quem dīlīgentissīme. Id.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

§ 207. Rem. 20. The oblique cases of the personal pronoun of the third person (him, her, etc.) are commonly expressed in prose by the oblique cases of is, ea, id. Hic and ille, however, being more emphatic, take the place of is, ea, id, in lyric poetry, and occasionally in prose also, when particular emphasis is intended. The cases of ipse, ipsa, ipsum, also, are employed for this purpose, when the individuality of the person is to be distinctly expressed. In reflexive sentences, the oblique cases of the pronoun of the third person, are regularly supplied by sui, sibi, se; and it is only when the person of the leading subject is to be referred to with particular emphasis, that ipse is used instead of sui.

Rem. 21. The demonstrative pronouns, is and ille, are sometimes used, especially with quidem, where a corresponding word in English is unnecessary, as, Săpientiæ stădium vētus id quidem in nostris, sed tămen, etc. Cic. O hōminem semper illum quidem mihi aptum, nunc vēro ētiam suāvem. 1d. Quem nēque fides, nēque jusjūrandum, nēque illum mīsērīcordia, rēpressit, Whom neither fidelity, nor an oath, nor pity, has restrained. Ter. Is when used for the sake of emphasis seems sometimes in English to be superfluous; as, Māle se res hābet, quum, quod virtūte effīci dēbet, id tentātur pēcūniā. Cic.

REM. 22. Sīc, ita, id, hoc, illud, are often used redundantly as a preliminary announcement of a subsequent proposition, and are added to the verb on which this proposition depends; as, Sīc a mājōribus suis accēpērant, tanta pōpūli Rōmān esse bēnēficia, ut, etc. Cic. Te illud admönco, ut quōtūde mēdtlēre, rēsistendum esse irācundiæ. Id. Hoc tībi persuādeas vēlim, me nihil ōmīsisse, I wish you to be persuaded of this—that I have omitted nothing. These pleonastic additions have generally no influence on the construction of propositions, but in a few instances they are followed by ut; as, De cūjus dīcendī cōpiā sīc accēpīmus, ut, etc. Cic. Itā ēnim dēfīnīt, ut perturbātio sit, etc. Id. In the phrase hoc, illud, or id āgēre ut, the pronoun is established by custom and is necessary. See § 273, 1, (a.)

REM. 23. (a.) Hic 'this' refers to what is near to the speaker either in place or time, ille 'that' to what is more remote. Hence hic sometimes refers to the speaker himself, and hic hōmo is then the same as ¿go. On this account hic is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. When reference is made to two things previously mentioned, hic commonly refers to the latter, ille to the former, and the pronouns are arranged in the same order, as the objects to which they relate; as, Ignāvia corpus hēbētat, libor firmat; illa mātūram sēnectūtem, hic longam ādōlescentīam reddīt, Sloth enervates the body, labor strengthens it; the former produces premature old age, the latter protracted youth. Cels.

(b.) But the order is often reversed, so that hic refers to the object first mentioned, and ille to the one mentioned last; as, Sic deus et virgo est; hic spe cèler, illa timōre. Ovid. So when alter...alter, 'the one...the other,' refer to two things mentioned before, the previous order is sometimes observed and sometimes reversed; but wherever there is ambiguity the order is reversed, so that the first alter refers to the last object. Sometimes hic...hic are used instead of hic...ille. So ille...ille sometimes denote 'the one...the other.'

(c.) Hic and ille have the same relation to time present and past as nunc and tunc, see § 277; and hence whatever, in speaking of present time, is expressed by hic and its derivative adverbs, hic, hinc, huc, and adhuc, is expressed by ille and its derivatives, when it is spoken of as belonging to past time.

REM. 24. Ille, when not in opposition to hic, is often used to denote that which is of general notoriety; as, Magno illi Alexandro simillimus, Very like Alexander the Great. Vell. Mēdēa illa, The celebrated Medea. Cic. Hence elle is sometimes added to other pronouns, to refer to something discussed before; as, Avēbant visēre, quis ille tot per annos opes nostras sprēvisset. Tac. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Unum illud dico, This only I say. Cic. Ille

sometimes marks a change of persons, and may then be translated 'the other'; as, Vercingetöria obviam Česári próficiscitur. Ille (scil. Cæsar) oppidum Noviodanum oppugnāre instituérat. Cæs.

REM. 25. Iste properly refers to the person addressed, and for this reason is called the demonstrative of the second person.—Ille refers to the person spoken of, and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. Thus iste liber is thy book, but ille liber is the book of which we are speaking. Hence, in letters, hic and its derivatives are used of the writer; iste and its derivatives of the person addressed; ille, etc., of some other person or thing. See§191, R. 1.(e.) Iste from its frequent forensic use, and its application to the opponent, often denotes contempt.

REM. 26. (a.) Is does not, like hic, ille, and iste, denote the place or order of the object to which it relates, but either refers without particular emphasis to something already mentioned or to something which is to be defined by the relative qui. Hic, is, or ille, may be used in this way before the relative, but only hic or is after it; as, Qui döcet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ille discit, unless some individual is referred to.

(b.) Is before a relative or ut has sometimes the sense of tālis, such, denoting a class; as, Nēque ēnim tu is es, qui quid sis nestias, Nor are you such a person, as not to know what you are. Cic.; sometimes it has the force of tdem; as, vos

-ii. Cic. Manil. 12.

(c.) If the noun to which is refers is to receive some additional predicate, we must use et is, atque is, isque, et is quidem, and with a negative nee is; as, Vincilla vēro, et ea sempiterna, etc. Cic. Unā in domo, et ea quidem angusta, etc. Id. Adólescentes áliquot, nec ii tênui loco orti, etc. Liv. Sed is is used when the additional predicate is opposed to the preceding; as, Serévitātem in senectate probo, sed eam, sīcut ália, modicam. Cic. The neuter et id, or idque, serves to introduce an addition to the preceding proposition; as, Quamquam te, Marce fili, annum jam audientem Crātippum, idque Athēnis, etc.

(d.) Is is not expressed when it would be in the same oblique case as the preceding noun to which it refers; as, Păter ămat libëros et tămen castīgat.

Multos illustrat fortūna, dum vexat.

(e.) When in English 'that' or 'those' is used instead of the repetition of the preceding substantive, is is never used in Latin, and ille only in later authors. In such cases the noun is commonly not repeated in Latin, and no pronoun is used in its place; as, Philippus hostium mānus sæpe vilāvit, suōrum eff ügere non vāluit, those of his own subjects. Curt. Sometimes the substantive is repeated; as, Jāācia civitātis cum jūdiciis principis certant. Vell. Sometimes a possessive adjective is used instead of the genitive depending on the omitted substantive; as, Tērentii fābūlas stādiōse lēgo, Plautīnis mīnus dēlector: and sometimes instead of the genitive or a possessive adjective the name of the person itself is put in the case which the verb governs; as, Sī cum Lycurgo et Drācōne et Sōlōne nostras lēges conferre võluēritis. Cic.—In Cicero hic and ille, when the preceding substantive is understood, retain their demonstrative signification, and therefore do not merely supply the place of the omitted substantive; as, Nullam ěnim virtus āliam mercēdem dēsīdērat, præter hanc, i. e. the one of which I am speaking. Cic.

REM. 27. (a.) Ide m, as denoting a subject which stands in equal relations to different predicates, often supplies the place of item or ētiam, 'also,' 'at the same time,' or of tāmen, 'yet,' if the things are apparently inconsistent; as, Māsīci, qui ērant quondam tidem poēte, Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Euphrates et Tigris magno āquārum divortio iter percurrunt; tidem (and yet) paulātim in arctius coēuni.

(b.) Et ipse, on the other hand, denotes that the same predicate belongs to two subjects. It is rendered by 'too' or 'also'; as, Antônīnus Commŏdus nihil pāternum hābuit, nisi quod contra Germānos fēlīcīter et ipse pugnāvit, for item or ipse quŏque. Eutr.—So, also, nec ipse is used in the sense of 'neither'; as, Prīmis rēpulsis Maharbal cum mājōre rōbore vīrōrum missus nec ipse ēruptiōnum colloritum sustīnuit. Liv.

(c.) Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of 'at once,' denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuere quidam qui iidem ornāte idem versūte dīcerent, There have been some who could speak at once

elegantly and artfully. Gic.

(d.) 'The same as' is variously expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac or atque, quam, quasi, ut or cum; as, Verres idem est qui fuit semper, Verres is the same as he has always been. Cic. Vita est eadem ac fuit. Liv. Disputationem exponimus iisdem fère verbis ut actum est. Cic. Eandem constituit potestated. quam si, etc. Cic. Eōdem lóco res est, quasi ea pêcănia lêgăta non esset. Id. Hunc ego eōdem mēcum patre genitum, etc. So also poetically with the dative; as, Eādem aliis sōpītu' quiete est. Lucr. Cf. § 222, R. 7.

IPSE, INTENSIVE OR ADJUNCTIVE.

REM. 28. (a.) Ipse, when used with a substantive pronoun taken reflexively. agrees either with such pronoun or with the subject of the proposition, according as either is emphatic; as, Agam per me ipse, I will do it myself. Cic. Non eyeo medicīnā (i. e. ut ālii me consolentur); me ipse consolor. Cic. Accūsando eum, a cūjus crūdēlitāte vosmet ipsi armis vindīcastis. Liv.—Cn. Pompeium omnībus, Lentulum mihi ipsi antepono. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custodias. Id. Deforme est de se ipsum prædicare. Id.—But Cicero often construes ipse as the subject, even where the emphasis belongs to the object; as, Quid est něgotii continere eos, quibus præsis, si te ipse contineas?

(b.) When ipse is joined with a possessive pronoun used reflexively, it usually takes the case of the subject; as, Meam ipse legem negligo; not meam ipsius, according to § 211, R. 3, (a). So, Si ex scriptis cognosci ipsi suis potussent. Cic. Eam fraudem vestrā ipsi virtūte vītastis. Liv. But the genitive is necessary when the possessive does not refer to the subject; as, Tuā ipsius causā hoc fēcī. And the possessive does not refer to the subject and the subject should be used; as, Conjectūram de tuo ipsius stūlio ceperis, instead of ipse.—(c.) Ipse is sometimes used as reflexive without sui; as, Omnes boni, quantum in ipsis fuit, Caesarem occīdē-

runt. Cic.

(d.) Ipse, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness, and may be rendered, just, 'precisely'; or 'very,' 'only'; as, Dyrrhachio sum profectus ipso illo die, quo lex est data de nobis, on the very day. Cic. Triginta dies erant ipsi, quum has dăbam literas, per quos nullas a volis acceperam, just thirty days. Id. Et quisquam dubitabit—quam făcile imperio atque exercitu socios et vectīgālia conservātūrus sit, qui ipso nomine ac rūmore defenderit, by his very name, or, by his name only. Id.

GENERAL RELATIVES.

REM. 29. Quicumque, quisquis, and the other general relatives (see § 139,5, R., are, in classical prose, always connected with a verb, and form the protasis. Quicumque is commonly used as an adjective, and quisquis as a substantive; but the neuter quodcumque is used as a substantive with a following genitive; as, Quodeumque militum; and, on the other hand, quisquis is rarely an adjective; as, Quisquis erit vitæ color. Hor.; and even the neuter quidquid is used in the same manner; as, Quisquis honos tumuli, quidquid solamen humandi est. Virg. Quieumque seems sometimes even in Cicero equivalent to onnis or quivis; as, Quæ sanāri poterunt, quācumque ratione sanābo, What can be cured, I will cure by every possible means. Cic. Yet pessum is rather to be supplied;—in whatever way I can.' But in later writers quicumque is frequently used in the absolute sense for quivis or quilibet; as, Cicérôném cuicumque éorum fortiter opposuërim. Quint. Qualiscumque and quantuscumque are likewise used in an absolute sense by ellipsis; as, Tu non concipisces quanticumque ad libertatem pervenire? At any price, be it ever so high. Sen. So quisquis is occasionally used, not as a relative, but as an indefinite pronoun.—Siquis often seems to stand as a relative, like the Greek titis for "itis, 'whoever'; but it always contains the idea of 'perhaps'; as, Nada fere Alpium cacamina sunt, et si quid est pābuli, obruunt nīves. Liv.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

REM. 30. (a.) Aliquis and quispiam are particular and affirmative, corresponding to the English some one; as, Hereditas est pecunia, que morte alicujus ad quempiam pervénit jūre, An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some (other) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrinā aliquid omnium generum et artium consequentur. Id.

(b.) Aliquis is more emphatic than the indefinite pronoun quis. (See § 137, (3.) Hence aliquis stands by itself, but quis is commonly connected with certain conjunctions or relative words, but these are sometimes separated from it by one or more words. Sometimes, however, quis is used without such conjunctions or relatives; as, Morbus aut egestas aut quid ejusmodi. Cic. Detrukère quid de ăliquo. Id. Înjuriam cui făcere. Id. So, Dixerit quis, Some one might say. But even after those conjunctions which usually require quis, aliquis is used when employed antithetically and of course emphatically; as, Timebat Pompeius omnia, ne ăliquid vos timeretis. Cic. In English the emphasis of ăliquis is sometimes expressed by 'really'; as, Sensus morrendi, si alīquis esse potest, is ad exiguum tempus dūrat. Cic.—Quispiam, also, is sometimes used like quis after si, etc., and sometimes stands alone; as, Quæret fortasse quispiam.

REM. 31. (a.) Quisquam, 'any one,' and ullus, 'any,' are universal. Like um-

quant and usquam they are used in propositions which involve a universal negative, or which express an interrogation with a negative force, or a condition (usually with si or quasi); also, after comparatives, after the adverb vix, and the preposition sine; as, Neque ex castris Catilina quisquam omnium discesserat, Nor had any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo cāsu potest contingère, ut ulla intermissio f at officii. Cic. An quisquam pôtest sine per-turbătione mentis îrasci? Id. Tetrior hic tyrannus Syrācūsānis fuit, quam quisquam superiorum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen. But after the dependent negative particles ne, neve, and the negative interrogative particle num, quis and

not quisquam is used.

(b.) But quisquam and ullus after si are often used not in a negative sense, but instead of aliquis or quis, serving only to increase the indefiniteness which would be implied in the latter pronouns; as, Aut enim nemo, quod quiden magis credo, aut, si quisquam, ille sapiens fuit, if any man. Cic. Hence, ultimately, even without si, where the indefiniteness is to be made emphatic, quisquam, ullus, umquam and usquam were used; as, Quamdiu quisquam erit, qui te defendere audeat, vives. Cic. Bellum maxime omnium memorabile, que umquam gesta sunt, scripturus sum. Tac.

(c.) Ullus is properly an adjective, but quisquam is commonly used without a noun, except it is a word denoting a person; as, Cuiquam cīvi, To any citizen. Cūjusquam orātoris eloquentiam. Hence quisquam corresponds to the substantive nemo and ullus to the adjective nullus. Nemo is often used with other substantives denoting male persons so as to become equivalent to the adjective nullus; as, nemo pictor, nemo adolescens, and even homo nemo. Cic. Quisquam is sometimes used in a similar manner; as, quisquam homo, quisquam cīvis. the other hand nullus and ullus are used as substantives instead of nemo and

quisquam, especially the genitive nullius and the ablative nullo.

REM. 32. (a.) Alius, like ullus, though properly an adjective, is sometimes used like a pronoun. It is often repeated, or joined with an adverb derived from it, in the same proposition, which may be translated by two separate propositions, commencing respectively with 'one...another'; as, Aliud ăliis videtur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis alliunde periculum est, Danger threatens one from one source, another from another; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Dionysium alter cum aliis de nobis locutum audiebam. Cic.—Alter is used in the same manner when only two persons are spoken of, but there are no adverbs derived from it; as, Alter in alterum causam conforunt, They accuse each other.

(b.) Alius, repeated in different propositions, is also translated 'one...another'; as, Aliud agitur, aliud simulātur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cic. Aliter loquitur, aliter scribit, like aliter ac or atque, He speaks otherwise than

he writes. So Aliud loquitur, aliud scrībit.

(c.) Uterque, 'each of two,' is always used by Cicero in the singular number, when only two individuals are spoken of. Its plural, utrīque, is used only when each of two parties consists of several individuals; as, Mācēdones—Týrū, utrīque. But in other good prose writers the plural utrīque is occasionally used in speaking of only two; as, Utrīque Diŏnŷsii. Nep. Cf. § 209, R. 11, (4.)

REM. 33. (a.) Quidam differs from aliquis by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known; as, Quidam de collegis nostris, A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Scis me quodam tempore Mět-

apontum vēnisse tēcum. Id.

(b.) Quidam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the whole, or to others; as, Excesserunt urbe quidam, alli mortem sibi consciverunt, Some departed from the city, others destroyed themselves. Liv. Hence it is used to soften an expression, where in English we say 'so to speak,' etc.; as, Milvo est quoddam bellum nātūrāle cum corvo, A kind of natural warfare. Cic. Fuit ēnim illud quoddam cocum tempus serritūtis. Id. Etēnim omnes artes quæ ad hūmānitūtem pertinent, hābent quoddam commūne vincūlum et quǎsi cognātione quādam inter se continentur. Id.—Tumquam is used for the same purpose, and also ut itu dīcam.

REM. 34. Quīvis and quīlibet, 'any one,' and ūnusquisque, 'each,' are universal and absolute; as, Onnia sunt ejusmõdi quīvis ut perspīcēre possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cic. Hic ŏpud mājōres nostros adhībēbātur pērītus, nunc quilibet. Id. Nātūra ūnumquemque trāhīt ad discendum. A negative joined with them denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis hómīni contingit ādīre Cūrinthum, i. c. not to every man without distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would have made the negation universal

Rem. 35. (a.) Quisque signifies each, every one, distributively or relatively, and generally stands without a noun; as, Quod cuique oblight, id quisque léneal, Let each one keep what has fallen to cach. Cic. Hence it is used particularly after relative and interrogative pronouns and adverbs; as, Scipio pollicètur sibi magnæ cāræ fóre, ut omnia cīvilātībus, quæ cūjusque fuissent, restituērentur. Cic. Ut prædici posset, quid cuique ēvenlārum, et quo quisque fāto nātus esset. Id. Cur fiat quidque quæris: recte omnīno. Id. Quo quisque ste sollertior, hoc docet lābōriosius. Id. Ut quisque optime dicit, ita maxime dicendi difficultātem timet. Id. And hence the expression quōtusquisque in the sense of 'how few among all.' It is also used distributively after numerals; as, Dēcīmus quisque sorte lectus, Every tenth man. Quinto quōque anno, In every fifth year. So also after suus; as, Sui cuique līběri cārissimi: suum cuique plūcet. (Respecting the order of the words, cf. § 279, 14: and respecting quisque in the nominative in apposition to a noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute or in the accusative with the infinitive, see § 204, R. 10.)

(b.) Quisque with a superlative, either in the singular or the plural, denotes universality, and is generally equivalent to omnes with the positive; as, doctassimus quisque, Every learned man, i. e. all the learned; but often, also, in connection with the verb, it retains the idea of a reciprocal comparison, and is to be rendered by the superlative; as, In omni arte optimum quidque rāvissimum, The best is the rarest. Cic. Altissima quæque flümina minima sono labuntur. The deepest rivers flow with the least sound. Curt. With primus, it denotes

the first possible; as, Primo quoque tempore, As soon as possible. Cic.

Possessives.

REM. 36. (a.) The possessive pronouns meus, tuus, suus, noster, and vester, are joined to nouns, to indicate an action or possession of the persons denoted by their primitives; as, Tūtus amor meus est tibi, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tuam vicem dolere soleo. Cic.—These pronouns, as in English, when belonging to two substantives, are generally expressed but once, even when the substantives are of different genders; as, amor tuus ac jūdicium de me.

(b.) But these pronouns are sometimes used when the persons to which they refer are the objects of an action, feeling, etc.; as, Nam něque tuā nēgligentiā, něque ödio id fécit tuo, For he did it neither through neglect nor hatred of you.

Ter. See \ 211, R. 3.

- (c.) The possessive pronouns, especially when used as reflexives, are often omitted; as, Quo revertar? in patriam? scil. meam, Whither shall I return? to (my) country? Ovid. Dextrā mūnėra porrexit, scil. suā. Id. But they are expressed when emphasis or contrast is intended, where in English 'own' might be added to the pronoun; as, Ego non dīcam, tāmen id potēritis cum ānimis vestris cōgitāre. Cic.
- (d.) When besides the person of the subject, that of a remote object also occurs in the proposition, the possessive pronoun will refer to the latter; as, Patris ănămum mihi reconciliasti, i. e. patris mei ănămum rather than tui.
- (e.) As reflexives, meus, etc., are translated my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their; or my own, thy own, his own, etc.

THE REFLEXIVES SUI AND SUUS.

§ 208. Rem. 37. (a.) Sui and suus properly refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand; as,

Oppidani făcinus in se ac suos fædum consciscunt, The citizens decide on a foul crime against themselves and their friends. Liv.

(b.) They continue to be used in successive clauses, if the subject remains the same; as,

Ipse se quisque diligit, non ut ăliquam a se ipse mercēdem exigat căritătis sux, sed quod per se sibi quisque cărus est. Cic.

(1.) In dependent clauses, in which the subject does not remain the same, the reflexives are commonly used in references to the leading subject, when the thoughts, language, purposes, etc., of that subject are stated; as,

Ariövistus prædicāvit, non sēse Gallis, sed Gallos sībi bellum intūlisse, Ariovistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him Cæs. Hömērum Cölöphönii cīrem esse dīcunt suum, The Colophonians say that Homer is their citizen. Cic. Tyrannus pētīvit ut se ad damīctācan tertium ascrībērent. Id. But sometimes, to avoid ambiguity, the cases of is or ille are used in such clauses in references to the leading subject; as, Helvētii sēse Allobrõges vi coactūros existāmābant, ut per suos fines eos ire pātīrentur. Cæs. Here suos refers to the subject of the dependent clause, and eos to Helvētii, the subject of the leading clause. And sometimes, even in the same dependent clause, two reflexive pronouns are used, referring to different persons; as, Scythæ pētēbant, ut rēgīs sui filiam mātrīmōnio sībi jungērct. Curt.

(2.) If, however, the leading subject, whose thoughts, etc., are expressed, is indefinite, the reflexives relate to the subject of a dependent clause; as,

Mēdēam prædicant (scil. hómīnes) in fūgā frātris sui membra in iis löcis, quā se pārens persēquērētur, dissīpāvisse. Cic. Ipsum rēgem trādunt ŏpērātum his sacris se abdīdisse. Liv.

(3.) (a.) When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the reflexive often refers not to its subject, but to that which would be its subject in the active voice; as,

A Cæsare invîtor ut sim sîbi lēgātus, i. e. Cæsar me invîtat, I am invited by Cæsar to become his lieutenant. Cic.

(b.) So when the subject is a thing without life, the reflexive may relate to some other word in the sentence, which denotes a thing having life; as,

Cănum tam fida custodia quid significat ăliud, nisi se ad hominum commoditates esse generatos? Cic.

(4.) Instead of *sui* and *suus*, whether referring to a leading or a subordinate subject, *ipse* is sometimes used, to avoid ambiguity from the similarity of both numbers of *sui*, and also to mark more emphatically than *suus*, the person to whom it relates; as,

Jugurtha lēgātos nīsit, qui ipsi līberisque vītam pētērent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea mõlestissīme ferre homīnes dēbent, quæ ipsorum culpā contracta sunt.

(5.) In the plural number, with *inter*, se only is used, if the person or thing referred to is in the nominative or accusative; se or *ipse*, if in any other case; as,

Fratres inter se quum formā, tum mōribus similes, Brothers resembling each other both in person and character. Cic. Fēras inter sēse conciliat nātūra. Cic. Incidunt āliqua a doctis ētiam inter ipsos mūtuo reprehensa. Quint.

(6.) (a.) When reference is made not to the subject of the proposition, but to some other person or thing, hic, is, or ille, is generally used, except in the cases above specified; as,

Thémistocles servum ad Xerxem mīsit, ut ei nuntiāret, suis verbis, adversārios ējus in fūgā esse, Themistocles sent his servant to Xerxes, to inform him (Xerxes), in his (Themistocles') name, that his (Xerxes') enemies were upon the point of flight. Nep.

(b.) But when no ambiguity would arise, and especially when the verb is of the first or second person, sui and suus sometimes take the place of the demonstrative pronouns; as,

Suam rem sibi salvam sistam, I will restore his property entire to him. Plaut.

(c.) On the contrary, the demonstratives are sometimes used for the reflexives; as,

Helvētii persuādent Raurācis, ut ūnā cum iis pröficiscantur, The Helvetii persuade the Rauraci to go with them. Cæs.—In some instances, a reflexive and a demonstrative are used in reference to the same person; as, Ita se gessit (seil. Ligārius) ut ei pācem esse expēdīret. Cic. C. Claudti ōrantis per sui frātris pārentisque ējus mānes. Liv.—Sometimes the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Ariovistus respondit, nēminem sēcum sine suā pernīcie contendisse (Cæs.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suā to nēminem.

(7.) (a.) Suus often refers to a word in the predicate of a sentence, and is then usually placed after it; as,

Hunc cives sui ex urbe ējēcērunt, Him his fellow-citizens banished from the city. Cic. Titūrius quum procul Ambiorigem, suos cohortantem, conspexisset. Cæs.

(b.) Suus, and not $h\bar{u}jus$, is used when a noun is omitted; as,

Octāvius quem sui (scil. ămīci) Cæsărem sălūtābant, Octavius, whom his followers saluted as Cæsar.

(c.) Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by cum but not when they are connected by a conjunction; as,

Ptölémæus ămīcos Demetrii cum suis rēbus dīmīsit, Ptolemy dismissed the friends of Demetrius with their effects. Just.

(8.) Suus sometimes denotes fit, favorable; as,

Sunt et sua dona părenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Ut liberător ille populi Români opperiretur tempora sua. Liv. Aphēnus utebătur populo sane suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculiar; as, Molles sua tura Sabei, soil. mittunt, i. e. the frankincense for which their country was famous. Virg. Fessosque sopor suus occăpat artus. Id.

NOMINATIVE.

SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

§ 209. (a.) The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative.

NOTE I. (a.) A verb in any mood except the infinitive is called a finite verb. (b.) In historical writing the nominative is sometimes joined with the present infinitive instead of the imperfect indicative. Cf. R. 5.

(b.) A verb agrees with its subject-nominative, in number and person; as,

Ego lĕgo, I read.
Tu scrībis, Thou writest.
Equus currit, The horse runs.

Nos lėgimus, We read. Vos scribitis, You write. Equi currunt, Horses run.

Note 2. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, Huc nātas adjīce septem, scil. vos, Thēbaĭdes. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So Adde dēfectiōnem Itāliæ, scil. vos, mīlites. Liv. 26, 41.

REMARK 1. (a.) The nominatives ĕgo, tu, nos, vos, are seldom expressed, the termination of the verb sufficiently marking the person; as,

Cŭpio, I desire; vīvis, thou livest; hăbēmus, we have. See § 147, 3.

(b.) But when emphasis or opposition is intended, the nominatives of the first and second persons are expressed; as, Ego $r\bar{e}ges\ \bar{e}j\bar{e}ci$, vos $t\bar{y}rannos\ intr\bar{o}d\bar{u}cttis$, I banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Auct. ad Her. Nos, nos, $d\bar{e}co\ \bar{q}perte$, consüles $d\bar{e}s\bar{u}mus$. Cic. Tu es patr $\bar{o}nus$, tu $p\bar{a}ter$ Ter. In indignant questions and addresses tu is expressed; as, Tu in $f\bar{o}rum\ pr\bar{o}d\bar{u}re$, tu $l\bar{u}eem\ conspicere$, tu in $h\bar{o}rum\ conspectum\ v\bar{e}n\bar{v}re\ c\bar{o}n\bar{a}ris$? Auct. ad Her.

REM. 2. The nominative of the third person is often omitted:—
(1.) When it has been expressed in a preceding proposition:—

(a.) As nominative; as, Mósa prôfluit ex monte Vósego, et in Oceanum influit. Cæs.; or (b) in an oblique case; as, Cursõrem mīsērunt, ut id nuntiāret, scil. cursor. Nep.: or (c) in a possessive adjective; as, Et véreor quo se Jūnōnia vertant Hospitia; haud tanto cessābit cardīne rērum, scil. illa, i. e. Jūnō. Virg Æn. I. 672.

(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing:-

Thus homines is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, férunt, etc.; as, Ut aiunt, As they say. Cic. Maxime admirantur eum, qui péunia non movétur. Id.—So bène est, bène hàbet or bène agitur, It is well; as, Si vales, bène est, ego valec. Quum mèlius est, grātūlor dis. Afran. Optūme hàbet, Nothing can be better. Plaut. Bène hàbet: jacta sunt fundāmenta defensionis. Cic. Bène agitur pro noxia. Plaut.

Note 3. This omission of the nominative is common in the clause preceding a relative; as, Qui Băvium non ôdit, âmet tua carmina, Mævî, scil. hōma, Let him who hates not Bavius, love your verses, Mævius. Virg. Vastātur agri quod inter urbem ac Fidēnas est, scil. id spātium. Liv. Sunt quos jūvat...scil. hōmines, There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nec vētēris pōcila Mussēts spernit, scil. hōmo. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quīdam, altquis, or âliqui. So, Est quod gaudeas, There is (reason) why you should rejoice. Cic. Nēque ērat cur fallēre rellent. Ovid. Est ubi id vāleat. Cic. Est, quum non est sătius, etc. Auct. ad Her. In the latter cases, the adverbs are equivalent to in quo, scil. lōco, tempôre.

Rem. 3. (1.) The nominative is wanting before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature; as,

Fulgărat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg. Lăcescebat, It was growing light. Liv. Jam advesperascit. Cic.

(2.) The nominative is also wanting before the third person singular of the passive of neuter verbs, and of active verbs used impersonally; as,

Făvētur tibi a me, Thou art favored by me. Ejus ōrātioni věhěmenter ab omnibus reclâmatum est. Cic. Proinde ut bene vivitur, diu vivitur. Plaut. Ad exitum ventum est. Sen. Actum est de império. See § 184, 2: and cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)

NOTE 4. A nominative, however, is expressed before the passive of some neuter verbs, which, in the active voice, are followed by an accusative; as, Pugna pugnāta est. Cic. See § 232, (1.)

(3.) It is wanting also before the neuter of the future passive participle with est; as,

Si vis me flere dolendum est prīmum ipsi tibi, If you wish me to weep, you yourself must first grieve. Hor. Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano. Juv. Ad villam revertendum est. Cic.

(4.) The nominative is also wanting before the impersonal verbs miseret, panitet, pudet, tadet, and piget; as,

Eos ineptiarum panitet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Miseret te aliorum, tui te nec miseret nec pudet. Plant. Me cīvitātis morum piget twdetque. Sall .-In such examples, the sense will sometimes permit us to supply fortuna, conditio, memoria, etc. So in the expression, Venit in mentem, It came into mind; as, In mentem vēnit de spēculo, scil. cogitatio, etc. Plaut.—An infinitive or a subjunctive clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, Te id nullo modo puduit făcere, To do that by no means shamed you. Ter. Non panitet me, quantum profecerim. Cic.

(5.) The subject of the verb is sometimes an infinitive or a neuter participle (either alone or with other words), one or more propositions, or an adverb. (Cf. § 202, R. 2 and 3: and § 274, R. 5, (b.) verb is then in the third person singular; as,

Văcăre culpă magnum est solătium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Neque est te fullere quidquum, To deceive you in any thing is not (possible.) Virg. Mentīri non est meum. Plaut. Te non istud audīvisse mīrum est, That you have not heard that is wonderful. Cic. Summum jus, summa in-Inat you have not neard that is wonderful. Cic. Summun jus, summa nijūria, factum est jam trītum sermone proverbium. Id. Ni dēgenerātum in ăliis huic quoque dēcori offēcisset. Liv. (Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.) Sin est ut vēlis mānēre illam apud te. Ter. Nec profuit Hydræ crescere per damnum, geminasque resūmere vīres. Ovid. Dic mihi, cras istud, Postume, quando vēnit? Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Pārumne campis atque Neptūno super f ūsum est Latīni sanguinis? Hor.

(a.) This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Oratorem frasci non decet, That an orator should be angry, is not becoming. Cic. Hoc fieri et öportet et öpus est. Id. Me pedibus delectat claudere verba, Hor. Interest omnium recte facere. Cic. Casu accidit, ut, id quod Rôme audierat, prīmus nuntiāret. Id. Sometimes a neuter pronoun is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Impūne făcere quæ libet, id est rēgem esse. Sall. Cf. § 206, (13,) (a.)

(6.) The nominative is also wanting before potest, capit or captum est, incipit, dēsinit, dēbet, solet, and vidētur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigēre eum facti capit, It began to repent him (i. e. he began to repent) of his conduct. Just. Sopientia est ūna, quā praceptrīce, in tranquillitāte vīvi pŏtest. Cic. Tædēre sŏlet āvāros impendii. Quint.

REM. 4. The verb is sometimes omitted; as,

Di měliōra piis, scil. dent or vělint, May the gods grant better things to the pious. Virg. Vērum hæc hactènus, scil. diximus. Cic. Pertîneo is understood in such expressions as nīhil ad ne, nīhil ad rem; Quid hoc ad Epīcūrum? What does this concern Epicurus? Quorsus hæc? i. e. quorsus hæc pertînent? What is that for?—Pārābo is to be supplied, in Quo mīhi hanc rem? Of what use is this to me? and, Unde mīhi àlīquam rem? Whence am I to get any thing? as, Quo mīhi bībliŏhēcas? Sen. Unde mīhi lāpīdem? Hor. A tense of fācio is often to be supplied, as in Recte ille, mēlius hi; Bēne Chrīpsippus, qui dōcet. Cic. Nīhil per vim umquam Clōdius, omnia per vim Mīlo. Id. Quæ qaum dixisset, Cotta finem. Id. So, also in the phrases nihil āliud quam; quid āliud quam bellum compārāvit. Nep. This verb is in like manner omitted with nihil amplius quam; nihil mīnus quam, and in the phrase si nihil āliud.—Ait or inquit is sometimes omitted in introducing the direct words of another, and more frequently in relating a connected conversation; as, Tum ille; hic ēgo; huic ēgo. Dīcit is sometimes omitted in quoting a person's words; as, Scite Chrīpsippus: ut glādīt causā rāgīnam, sic præter mundum cētāra omnia āliōrum causā esse gēnērāta. Cic.—After per in adjurations ōro, rögo or prēcor is often omitted; as, Per ēgo vos deos patrios vos ōro, vindicāte. Curt. This omission is most common with the copula sum; as, Nam Pōlyāōrus ēgo, scil. sum, For I am Polydorus. Virg. And so est and sunt are often omitted with predicate adjectives, and especially in proverbial phrases; as, Quot hōmīnes tot sententiæ. Ter. Omnia præclāra rāra, scil. sunt. Cic. So also est and sunt are often omitted in the compound tenses of the passive voice; as, Agro muletāti, scil. sunt. Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 3.

Note 5. In Latin, as in English, a verb is often joined to one of two connected nominatives and understood with the other, and that even when the persons are different; as, mägis ěgo te ămo, quam tu me, scil. ămas. After a negative verb a corresponding positive verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after něgo, dīco, after vēto, jūbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of sed. Cf. § 323, 1, (2.), (b.)

NOTE 6. Sometimes, when the verb of an appended proposition is omitted, its subject is attracted to the case of a noun in the leading proposition with which is joined a participle of the omitted verb; as, Hannibal Minucium, mā-gistrum ēquitum, pāri ac dietātorem dolo productum in praclium, figāvit, i. e. pāri ac dietātor dolo productus Nep. Hann. 5. So Liv. 34, 32.

REM. 5. In the historic style the nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Intërim quotidie Cesar Æduos frümentum flägitäre, Meanwhile Cæsar was daily demanding corn of the Ædui. Cæs. Nos paridi trepidare metu. Virg. Id horrendum ferri. Id.

NOTE 7. The infinitive in this construction is called the *historical infinitive*, and is used instead of the imperfect indicative to express in a lively manner a continued or repeated action or condition.

REM. 6. The relative qui may refer to an antecedent either of the first, second, or third person; and its verb takes the person of the antecedent; as,

Ego qui lĕgo, I who read. Tu qui scrībis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs. Vos qui quærītis, You who ask.

REM. 7. (a.). Verbs in the first person plural, and the second person singular, are sometimes used to express general truths; as,

Quam multa făcimus causă ămicorum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) for the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me flere, dolendum est primum ipsi tibi, Whoever wishes me, etc. Hor.

(b.) Nos is often used for ego, and noster for meus; and even when the pronoun is not expressed, the verb is frequently put in the first person plural instead of the first person singular. The genitive nostri is used for mei, but nostrim always expresses a real plurality.

Rem. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b.)

Rem. 9. The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate-nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amendium irve ămoris integratio est, The quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter. Löca, que proxima Carthaghuem, Nămidia appellătur. Sall. And sometimes it agrees with the nearest subject of a subordinate sentence; as, Sed ei căriora semper omnia, quam decus atque pădicitia fuit. Sall. Cat. 25.

REM. 10. In cases of apposition, the verb commonly agrees with the noun which is to be explained; as, Tulliöla, dēliciæ nostræ, jlāgitat. Cic. But sometimes the verb agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a nearer noun in apposition to it; as, Tungri, cīvītas Galliæ, fontem hābet insignem, The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin. Cöriöli oppīdum captum (est). Liv.

REM. 11. A collective noun has sometimes, especially in poetry, a plural verb; as,

Pars ěpůlis ŏněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba ruunt. Ovid. Atria turba těnent; věniunt lěve vulgus euntque. Id.

- (1.) (a.) A plural verb, joined to a collective noun, usually expresses the action, etc., of the individuals which that noun denotes. In Gicero, Sallust, and Cæsar, this construction scarcely occurs in simple sentences; but it is often used, when the subject of the verb is expressed not in its own, but in a preceding clause; as, Hoc idem generi hāmāno ēvēnit, quot in terrā collōcāti sint, because they (scil. hōmines) live on earth. Cic. In Livy it occurs more frequently; as, Locros onnis multitādo ābeunt.
- (b.) Abstract nonns are sometimes used collectively, instead of their concretes; as, nöbilitas for nöbiles, jäventus for jävenes, vicinia for vicini, servitium for servi, livis armātāra for liviter armātā, etc. (c.) Miles, ēques, pēdes, and similar words are sometimes used collectively for the soldiery, the cavalry, etc.
- (2.) When two or more clauses have the same collective noun as their subject, the verb is frequently singular in the former, and plural in the latter; as, Jam ne nocte quidem turba ex eo lóco dilābēbātur, refractārosque carcĕrem mīnābantur. Liv. Gens eddem, que te crādēli Dannia bello insčquītur, nos si pellant, nībil abföre crēdunt. Virg.
- (3.) Tantum, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun; as, Quid huc tantum hóminum incēdunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Plaut.
- (4.) A plural verb is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, after iterque and quisque, pars...pars, alius...alium, and alter...alterum, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, Uterque errum ex castris exercitum educunt, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cas. Intimus quisque libertorum vincti abreptique (sunt.) Tac. Alius alium, ut prælium incipiant, circumspectant. Liv. Cf. § 207, R. 32, (c.)

Note 8. This construction may be explained by passages like the following, in which the plural is placed first, and then the singular, denoting its parts; Cēlőri, suo quisque tempôre, ăderunt. Liv. Décemviri perturbâti âlius in âliam partem costrorum discurrunt. Id. See § 204, R. 10.

REM. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Furor iraque mentem præcipitant, Fury and rage hurry on (my.) mind. Virg. Dum ætas, metus, mägister, prohibebant. Ter.

- (1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammatice quondam ac mūsīce junctæ fuērunt. Quint.
- (2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life; as,

Mens čnim, et ratio et consilium in sčnībus est. Cic. Beneficentia, līberālītas, bonītas, justītia fundītus tollītur. Id.

Note 9. This construction is most common when the several nominatives, as in the preceding examples, constitute, as it were, but one idea. So also the compound subject Sēnātus pōpūlusque Rōmānus has always a predicate in the singular. The same construction sometimes, especially in the poets, occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thrāsymāchus, Prōtāgōras, Prōdicus, Hippias in hōnōre fuit. Cic. Quin et Prōmētheus et Pēlopis pārens dulci lābōrum dēcīpītur sōno. Hor. When the nominatives denote both persons and things, the verb is commonly plural; as, Cotto consulum et Pompeius obsunt. Liv.

(3.) When one of the nouns is plural, the verb is generally so; but sometimes it is singular, when the plural noun does not immediately precede it; as, Dii te pënātes patriique, et patris imāgo, et domus rēgia, et in domo rēgāle so-

lium, et nomen Tarquinium creat vocatque regem. Liv.

- (4.) When each of the nominatives is preceded by et or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, Hoc et rătio doctis, et necessitas barbāris, et mos gentibus, et fêris nātūra ipsa præscripsit, This, reason has dictated to the learned, and necessity to barbarians, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts. Cic. Et ego, et Cicero meus flagitābit. Id. Tum ætas viresque, tum āvīta gloria cinimum stimulābat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinities; as, Et făcere, et păti fortia, Rōmānum est. Cic. Unus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dicit ūnus et alter brēviter. Cic. Unus et alter assuitur pannus. Hor.
- (5.) When the nominatives are connected by *aut*, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Söcrätes aut Antisthènes dīcĕret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic. Ut quosque studium prīvātim aut grātia occupāvērunt. Liv.

- (a.) The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person; as, Quod in Décemviris nêque égo nêque Cesar habiti essemus. Cic.—(b.) With aut...aut and nec...nec the singular is preferred, but with seu...seu and tam...quam the verb is in the plural.
- (6.) A nominative singular, joined to an ablative by the preposition cum, sometimes has a singular but more frequently a plural verb; as, Dömitius cum Messālā certus esse vidēbātur. Cic. Bocchus, cum pěditībus, postrēma Rōmānōrum āciem invādunt, Bocchus, with his foot-soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall. Ipse dux, cum āliquot princīpībus, cāpiuntur. Liv.
- (7.) If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb is of the first person rather than the second or third, and of the second rather than the third; as,

Si tu et Tullia vălētis, ego et Cicero vălēmus, If you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hee neque ego neque tu fēcimus. Ter. Ego populusque Românus bellum jūdico făcioque. Liv.

(a.) Yet sometimes the verb agrees in number and person with the nearest nominative, and is understood with the other; as, Vos ipsi et sënëtus fréquens restitit. This is always the case when the action of the verb is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; as, Ego misère tu féliciter vivis.

REM. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and O, are sometimes followed by the nominative; as,

En Priămus! Lo Priam! Virg. En ego, vester Ascănius. Id. Ecce homo Catienus! Cic. Ecce twa lītēra. Id. O vir fortis atque ămīcus! Ter.

PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

- § 210. A noun in the predicate, after a verb neuter or passive, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as,
- (a.) When the subject is in the nominative; Ira fŭror brėvis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego võcor Lyconides, I am called Lyconides. Plaut. Ego incêdo regina, I walk a queen. Virg. Caius et Lūcius frätres fuërunt. Cic.— So (b.) when the subject is in the accusative with the infinitive; Jūdicem me esse võlo. Cic.

(c.) Sometimes also a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a verb neuter or passive. See § 227, N.—And (d.) a predicate ablative sometimes follows passive participles of choosing, naming, etc.; as, Consult-

bus certioribus factis. Liv. See § 257, R. 11.

(e.) If the predicate noun has a form of the same gender as the subject, it takes that form; as, Licentia corruptrix est mõrum. Cî. § 204, R. 2.—(f.) But if the subject is neuter, the noun of the predicate, if it has both a masculine and a feminine form, takes the former; as, Tempus vitæ magister est.

(g.) An infinitive may supply the place of a predicate nominative. See § 269,

R. 4.

- REMARK 1. (a.) Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, standing in the predicate, after verbs neuter or passive, and relating to the subject, agree with it in gender, number, and case.
- (b.) When the subject consists of two or more nouns, the gender and number of such predicate adjectives are determined by § 205, R. 2.
- Rem. 2. (a.) The noun in the predicate sometimes differs in gender and number from the subject; as, Sanguis ĕrant lăcrimæ, Her tears were blood. Ovid. Captīvi mīlitum præda fuērunt. Liv.
- (b.) So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum, the predicate is plural; as, Exsules esse jubet L. Tarquinium cum conjuge et libëris. Liv.
- REM. 3. The verbs which most frequently have a noun, etc., in the predicate agreeing in case, etc., with their subject, are:—
- (1.) The copula sum; as, Ego Jövis sum filius. Plaut. Disce esse păter. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, etc.; as, Quod est longe alter. Cic. Rectissime sunt apud te omnia, Every thing with you is in a very good condition. Id.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Numen sine ture est. Ovid. Sunt nobis mitia poma. Virg.
- (2.) Certain neuter verbs denoting existence, position, motion, etc.; as, vivo, exsisto, appareo, cádo, eo, evado, fúgio, inccdo, jáceo, maneo, sédeo, sto, vénio, etc. Thus, Rex circuibat pèdes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos júdicabat non posse oratores évadère. Cic. Ego huic causæ patrônus exstiti. Cic. Qui fit, ut nêmo contentus vivat?
 - (3.) The passive of verbs denoting,
- (a.) To name or call; as, appellor, dicor, nominor, nuncupor, perhibeor, sălutor, scribor, inscribor, vocor. Thus, Cognomine Justus est appellatus, He was called by the surname Just. Nep. Aristœus ölivæ dicitur inventor. Cic.

(b.) To choose, render, appoint, or constitute; as, constituor, creor, dēclāror, dēsignor, ēligor, fēo, reddor, rēnuncior. Thus, Dux a Rōmānis ēlectus est Q. Fābius. Postquam ephēbus factus est. Nep. Certior factus sum.

(c.) To esteem or reckon; as, censeor, cognoscor, crēdor, dēprěhendor, existimor, dūcor, féror, håbeor, jūdicor, měmŏror, nůměror, půtor, rěpěrior, videor. Thus, Crēdēbar sanguinis auctor ěgo. Ovid. Mālim vidēri timidus quam părum

prūdens. Cic.

- Note 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predicate-nominative, etc., an infinitive of sum is expressed or understood; as, Amens mihi fuises videor, I think I was beside myself. Cic. But the dative of the first person is sometimes omitted after videor; as, Satis döcusse videor. Id.—Atilius prūdens esse pūtābātur. Id. So with dīcor (to be said), and perhibeor; as, Vērus patriæ dīcēris esse păter. Mart. Hoc ne locūtus sine mercēde existimer. Phæd.
- NOTE 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque păterque audisti coram. Hor.
- REM. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action; as, Comes additus Æō-lides, Æolides was added as a companion. Virg. Lūpus ŏbambūlat nocturnus. Id. Appāret liquido sublīmis in æthère Nīsus. Id. So with an active verb; Audīvi hoc puer. Cic. Sopiens nil j'acit invītus. Id. Rempūblīcam dēfendi adolescens. Id. Cf. § 204, R. 1.
- Note 3. Instead of the predicate-nominative, a dative of the end or purpose sometimes occurs (see § 227); sometimes an ablative with pro; as, audācia pro mūro est; and sometimes the ablatives loco or in numěro with a genitive; as, ille est mihi pärentis loco; in hostium numěro hábětur.
- REM. 5. The noun *opus*, signifying 'need,' is often used as a predicate after sum. It is, in such cases, translated by the adjectives needful, necessary, etc.; as, Dux nobis et auctor opus est. Cic. Multi opus sunt boves. Varr. (Dixit) aurum et ancillas opus esse. Ter. Usus also is occasionally so construed.
- REM. 6. When the pronoun, which is the subject of an infinitive, is omitted, the case of the predicate is sometimes, in the poets, attracted into that of the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends; as, Uxor invicti Jövis esse nescis, i. e. te esse uxōrem. Hor. Rētūlit Ajax esse Jövis pronepos. Ovid.

GENITIVE.

GENITIVE AFTER NOUNS.

§ 211. A noun which limits the meaning of another noun, denoting a different person or thing, is put in the genitive; as,

Amor glōriæ, Love of glory; Arma Achillis, The arms of Achilles; Păter patriæ, The father of the country; Vitium iræ, The vice of anger; Nĕmŏrum custos, The guardian of the groves; Amor hābendi, Love of possessing.

Note 1. In the first example, $\bar{a}mor$ denotes love in general; $gl\bar{v}ri\alpha$ limits the affection to the particular object, glory. Such universally is the effect of the genitive, depending upon a noun. Hence the limitation of a noun by a genitive resembles that which is effected by an adjective. In each the noun limited constitutes with its limitation only a single idea.

REMARK 1. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of Source; as, R'adii $s\~olis$, The rays of the sun;—Cause; as, D'olor p'olagra. The pain of the gout;—Effect; as, Artifex mundi, The Creator of the world;—Connection: as, P'ater cons'alis. The father of the cossil;—Possession; as, D'olimes ('assimpsion). The house of C'assar;—O'spiect; as, $C\~ogit\~atio$ $\'alic\~ajus$ rei, A thought of something;—Purpose; as, $App\'ar\~atus$ triumphi, Preparation for a triumph;—A whole; as, Purs h'ominum, A part

of men; this is called the partitive genitive; - Character or Quality; as, Adolescens summa audācia, A youth of the greatest boldness; -Material or Component Parts; as, Montes auri, Mountains of gold; Acervus scutorum, A heap of shields; - Time; as, Frumentum dierum decem, Corn for ten days.

REM. 2. The genitive is called subjective or active, when it denotes either that to which a thing belongs, or the subject of the action, feeling, etc., implied in the noun which it limits. It is called objective or passive, when it denotes the object affected by such action, or towards which such feeling is directed; as,

Subjective.

Facta virorum, Deeds of men. Dolor ănimi, Grief of mind. Jūnonis īra, The anger of Juno. Objective.

Odium vitii, Hatred of vice. Amor virtūtis, Love of virtue. Dēsīděrium ōtii, Desire of leisure.

(a.) Whether a genitive is subjective or objective, is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection. Thus, providentia Dei signifies God's providence, or that exercised by him; timor Dei, the fear of God, or that exercised towards him. The same or similar words, in different connections, may express both significations. Thus, metus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean, either the fear felt by the enemy, or that felt by their opponents. So vulnus Ulixis (Virg. £n. 2, 436.) denotes the wound which Ulysse had given; vulnus £nēæ, (td. £n. 12, 323.) that which £neas had received.

(b.) The relation expressed by the English possessive case is subjective, while

that denoted by of with its case is either subjective or objective.

(c.) The objective genitive is of very extensive use in Latin in the limitation of verbal nouns and adjectives, whatever may be the construction of the verbs from which such nouns and adjectives are derived, whether they take an ac-

cusative or some other case or even a preposition.

(d.) When ambiguity would arise from the use of the objective genitive, a preposition with an accusative or ablative is commonly used; as, Amor in rempüblicam, for reipüblicae, Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Rōmānos, for Rōmānōrum. Nep. Cūra de sālāte patriæ, for sālātis. Cic. Prædātor ex sōciis, for sōciōrum. Sall. Sometimes both constructions are combined; as, Rēvērentia adversus homines et optimi cūjusque et reliquorum. Cic. Off. 1, 28.

Note. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition, especially with vox, nomen, verbum, etc.; as, vox voluptatis, the word pleasure; nomen amicitiæ, the word amicitia; domini appellatio. This is usual when the genus is defined by the species; as, arbor fici, a fig-tree; flos violæ, a violet; wirtus continentiæ, the virtue of abstinence: and in geographical names; as, oppīdum Antiŏchīæ. Cf. § 204, R. 6.—Cicero frequently uses a genitive in this manner with genus and causa; as, Unum genus est eorum, qui, etc. Duæ sunt causæ, ūna pūdoris, altera sceleris. So, also, the genitive of gerunds; as, Triste est nomen ipsum cărendi, The very word to want is sad. Cic.

REM. 3. (a.) A substantive pronoun in the genitive, limiting the meaning of a noun, is commonly objective; as,

Cūra mei, Care for me. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Vestri cūram ăgite. Curt. This genitive is used especially with verbal substantives in or, ix and io; as, Accūsātor mei. Cic. Nimia æstimātio sui. Id. Rătionem et sui et ăliorum hăbēre. Id.

(b.) Instead of the subjective or possessive genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding adjective pronoun is commonly used; as.

Liber meus, not liber mei, my book. Cūra mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Cic. Tuas lītēras exspecto. Id. Yet the subjective genitive of a substantive pronoun sometimes occurs; as, Tui ūnīus stūdio, By the zeal of yourself alone. Cic.

(c.) And not unfrequently, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive; as, Mea injūria, Injury to me. Sall. So, Invidia tua, Envy of thee. Fīdūcia tua, Confidence in thee. Plaut. Spes mea, The hope placed in me. With causā the adjective pronoun, and never the genitive, is used; as, Meā causā, For my sake. Plaut.

REM. 4. (a.) Instead, also, of the subjective genitive of a noun, a possessive adjective is often used; as, Causa rēgia, for causa rēgis. Cic. Herilis filius, for heri filius. Id. Evandrius ensis, for Evandri. Virg. Herc'ileus lābor, for Herc'ulis. Hor. Cīvilis fūror, for civium. Hor. So, also, for the objective genitive,

Mětus hostīlis, Fear of the enemy. Sall.

(b.) The genitive of the person implied in the adjective pronoun or possessive adjective, or an adjective agreeing with such genitive, is sometimes added as an apposition; as, $Vestr\bar{a}$ ipsorum causā hoc $f\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\iota$. In the poets and later prose writers a participle also is found agreeing with such implied genitive; as, Mea scripta vulgo recitare timentis. Hor. Cf. § 204, R. 4, and § 205, R. 13.

REM. 5. In the predicate after *sum*, and sometimes after other verbs, the dative is used like the objective genitive; as,

llem âmor exitium pēcori (est), pēcorisque māgistro. Virg. Vītis ut arbörībus dēcori est, ut vītībus ūræ—Tu dēcus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative dēcori and the nominative dēcus are used with no difference of meaning. Cf. § 227, R. 4. Auctor fui sēnātui. Cic. Muræna lēgātus Lūcullo fuit. Id. Erit ille mīhi semper deus. Virg. Huic causæ patrōnus exstīti. Cic. Huic ēgo me bello dūcem prōfiteor. Id. Se tertium (esse) cui fātum foret urbis potīri. d.—Cum P. Āfricāno sēnātus ēgīt, ut lēgātus frātri prōficiscērētur. Id. Čæsar tēgīmentu gūleis mīlites ex vīminībus fācēre jūbet. Čæs. Trinōbantībus Gæsar impērat—frāmentum exercītui. Id. Quod nēgue insidūz consūli prōcēdēbant. Sall. Quem exitum tantis mālis spērārent? Id. Sanctus vir et ex sententia ambōbus, scil. qui fuit. Id. See § 227, R. 4.

Note. The dative in the preceding examples has been thought by some grammarians to depend on the nouns connected with it; as, exitium, dicus, auctor, legatus, deux, patrūnus, etc.; by others it has been held to depend on these nouns in connection the verbs, and not upon either separately; but the better opinion seems to be that, which makes such datives grammatically dependent upon the verbs only, though logically connected also with the nouns.

(1.) Instead, also, of the *possessive* genitive, a dative of the person may follow a verb, when its act has relation to the body or possessions of such person; as,

Sese omnes fentes Cæsari ad pêdes projecerunt, They all, weeping, cast themselves at the feet of Cæsar. Cæs. Cui corpus porregitur, For whom the body, i. e. whose body, is extended. Virg. Tunvero exarsit jûvêni dölor ossibus ingens. Id. Transfigitur scutum Pulfioni. Cæs.

Rem. 6. When the limiting noun denotes a *property, character*, or *quality*, it has an adjective agreeing with it, and is put either in the genitive or the ablative; as,

Vir exempli recti, A man of correct example. Liv. Adölescens summæ audāciæ, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pēdum vīginti, A ditch of twenty feet, (i. e. in width). Cæs. Humilcar sēcum duzit filium Humbūlem annōrum novem. Nep. Athēnienses dēlīgunt Pēriclem, spectātæ virtūtis vīrum. Just. Quinquāginta annōrum impērium. Id. Her unius diēi. Cic. Pulchritūdīne eximiā fēmīna, A woman of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maxīmo nātu filius, The eldest son. Nep. L. Cātiliān fuit magnā vi et ānimi et corpōris, sed ingēnio mālo prāvōque. Sall. Spēlunca infinītā altītūdīne. Cic.—Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Lentūlum nostrum, exīmiā spe, summæ virtūtis ādōlescentem. Cic.

- (1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of the adjective; and the noun denoting the property, etc., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est bos cervi figūrā,...of the form of a stag. Cæs. Uri spēcie et cölöre tauri. Id. Frütex palmi altitudīne. Plin. Clāvi digiti pollicis crassitūdīne. Cæs.
- (2.) All the qualities and attributes of persons and things, whether inherent or accidental, may be thus expressed by the genitive and ablative of quality, provided the substantives are immediately connected; as, fossa quindecim pedum; homo antiqua viritie. It hence follows that such genitives and ablatives, when used to express duration of time or extent of space, are distinguished from the cases in which the accusative is required, since the latter case always follows adjectives or verbs; as, fossa quindecim pedes lata: puer decem annos natus. Cf. § 236.
- (3.) Whether the genitive or the ablative of quality is preferable in particular cases, can frequently be determined only by reference to classical authority; but, in general, the genitive is used more frequently to express inherent qualities than such as are merely accidental, while the ablative is used indifferently for either purpose. In speaking of transitory qualities or conditions the ablative is always used; as, Magno timõre sum, I am in great fear. Cic. Bŏno ànimo sum. Id. Quanto fuērim dölöre mēmīnisti. Id. Maxīmo hŏnōre Servius Tullius èrat. Liv. With plural substantives the genitive is rare; while in expressions of measure it is used rather than the ablative.
- (4.) An accusative instead of a genitive of quality is used with sĕcus (sex), gĕnus and pondo; as, Lībērōrum cāpītum vīrīle sēcus ad dĕcem millia capta, i. e of the male sex, instead of sexūs vīrīlis. Liv. So gēnus, when joined with a pronoun, as hoc, id, illud, quod, or with omne, is used for hūjus, ējus, omnis, etc., gĕnēris; as, Orātōnes aut ālīquid id gēnus scrībēre,—of that kind. Cic. Concrēdēre nūgas hoc gĕnus. Hor. So pondo is joined as an indeclinable word to the accusatives tībram and tībras; as, Dīctātor cōrōnam auream lībram pondo in Cāpītōlio Jōvi dōnum pŏsuit,...a pound in weight. Liv. Cf. § 236, R. 7.
- (5.) The genitive modi with an adjective pronoun supplies the place of a pronoun of quality; as, cājusmōdi libri, the same as quāles libri, what kind of books; hājusmōdi libri, i. e. tāles libri, such books. So, also, gĕnēris is used, but less frequently.
- (6.) With the genitive of measure are often connected such ablatives as longitudine, latitudine, etc., or in longitudinem, etc.; as, fossa decem pedum latitudine; but the genitive does not depend on these words.
- (7.) Sum may be followed by either the genitive or the ablative of quality with an ellipsis of the word limited, which, with the genitive, is homo, res, negotiam, proprium or proprius, etc., and with the ablative, præditus, instructus, ornatus, etc. Cf. Rem. 8, and §§ 244, and 249, I.
- REM. 7. (1.) The limited noun is sometimes omitted; as, O miseræ sortis! soil. hômines; O (mcu) of wretched fortune! Lucan. Ad Diānæ, soil. ædem. Ter. Hectoris Andromáche, soil. uxor. Virg. Suspicionis vitandæ, soil. causā. Tac. So filius or filia; as, Hannibal Gisgônis.
- (2.) The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, G_{ij} um $p\acute{e}$ cus? an $M\acute{e}$ libei? Non; $v\acute{e}$ rum E_{ij} 0 $n\acute{e}$ 1, soil. $p\acute{e}$ cus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, $Nullam\ virtus$ alium mercédem désidérat, præter hanc (seil. mercédem) laudis. Cic.
- REM. 8. The limited noun is often wanting in the predicate of a sentence after sum. This usually happens,
 - (1.) When it has been previously expressed; as,

Hec domus est Cæsaris, This house is Cæsar's. Nomen auræ tam sæpe röcātum esse pătans Nymphæ. Ovid. Nāves onerārias, quārum minor nulla erat duum millium amphorum, i. e. quārum minor nulla erat quam nāvis duum, etc. Cic.

(2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, etc.; as,

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Thūcydides, qui ejusdem ætātis fuit, scil. hómo, Thucydides, who was of the same age. Nep. Multum ei dētraxit, quod ātiēnæ ērat cīrtīdīts, scil. hómo or cīris. Id. Prīmum stīpendium mēruit annōrum dēcem septemque, scil. ădolescens. Id. Summi ut sint lābōris eff iciunt, scil. āntināliu. Cæs. (Claudius) somni brēvissimi ērat. Suet. Mīrā sum ātlacritāte. Cic. Vulgus ingēnio mobili ērat. Sall: Non est jūris sui, He is not his own master. Lucan. Potestātis suæ esse. Liv. Suārungue rērum ērant. Id. Cf. Rem. 6, (7.)

(3.) When it is a general word denoting thing, for which, in English, the words part, property, duty, office, business, characteristic, etc., are commonly supplied; as,

Těměritas est flörentis ætātis, prūdentia sčnectūtis, Rashness is (the characteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallicæ consuētūdinis. Cæs. So, stultītia est; est lērītātis, etc., which are equivalent to stultītia est, lērītas est. Omnia hostium ērant. A paucis ēmi, quod multōrum esset. Sall.

- (a.) This happens especially when the subject of the verb is an infinitive, or an entire clause, in which case, instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns, mei, tui, etc., the neuters of the possessives, meum, tuum, etc., are used; as, Addlescentis est mājōres nātu rēvērēri, It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cūjusvis hōminis est errāre, nullius nīsi insīpientis in errōre persēvērāre. Cic. Paupēris est nūmērāre pēcus. Ovid. So especially moris est; as, Nēgāvit mōris esse Græcōrum, ut in convīvio vīrōrum accumbērent mūliēres, the same as mōrem esse Græcōrum. Cic. Nīhil tam equandæ lībertātis esse. Līv. So when the verb is omitted; Tāmen officii duxit, exōrāre patrem, scil, esse. Suet. Non est menūri meum. Ter. Tuum est, M. Cāto, vīdēre quid āgātur.
- (b.) Instead of the genitive of a substantive, also, the neuter of a possessive adjective derived from it is sometimes used; as, Hūmānum est errāre, To err is human. Ter. Et făcere et păti fortia Rōmānum est. Liv.
- (4.) The same construction sometimes occurs after făcio, and some other verbs mentioned in § 230, esse being understood; as, Asia Rōnānōrum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Agrum suæ ditionis fēcisse. Liv.
- (5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Magmi formīca lābōris, scil. ānīmal, The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Li vēnit in mentem pōtestātis tuæ, scil. mēmōria, or the like. Cic.

Note. When the noun which is wanting denotes a thing, grammarians sometimes supply $n\bar{s}gotium$, off teium, $m\bar{u}nus$, δpus , res, causa, etc. It is an instance of a construction common in Latin, to omit a noun when a general idea is intended. See § 205, Rem. 7, (2.)

REM. 9. The limiting noun also is sometimes omitted; as,

Tria millia, scil. passuum. In most cases of this kind, an adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, is expressed in the genitive.

REM. 10. Two genitives sometimes limit the same noun, one of which is commonly subjective, and the other objective; as,

Agamemnonis belli glōria, Agamemnon's glory in war. Nep. Illius administrātio provincies. Cic. Eōrum diērum consuctādine itīnēris nostri exercitūs perspectā. Cæs. Orbitus reipūblīcæ tālium vīrōrum. Cic. Pro vētērībus Helvētīōrum injūriis pōpūli Rōmāni. Cæs.

REM. 11. Opus and ūsus are rarely limited by a genitive or accusative, but generally by an ablative, of the thing needed; as,

Argenti öpus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad consilium pensandum tempöris õpus esse. Id. Proœmii non semper üsus est. Quint. Si quo öpēræ eörum üsus est. Liv. Puĕro õpus est cībum. Plaut. Usus est hŏmīnem astūtum. Id. See § 243.

REM. 12. The relation denoted by the genitive in Latin, is generally expressed, in English, by of, or by the possessive case. Cf. R. 2, (b.) The objective genitive may often be rendered by some other preposition; as,

Rěmědium dölöris, A remedy for pain. Injūria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averni, The descent to Avernus. Ira belli, Anger on account of the war. Pôtestas rei, Power in or over a thing.

Note. Certain limitations of nouns are made by the accusative with a preposition, and by the ablative, either with or without a preposition. Cf. § 202, 6, I. and II.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTITIVES.

§ 212. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as,

Pars cīvitātis, A part of the state. Nulla sŏrōrum, No one of the sisters. Aliquis philosophōrum, Some one of the philosophers. Quis mortālium? Who of mortals? Mājor jūvēnum, The elder of the youths. Doctissīmus Rōmānōrum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pēcūniue, Much (of) money. Sātis eldquenties, Enough of eloquence. Ubinam gentium sămus? Where on earth are we?

Note. The genitive thus governed denotes either a number, of which the partitive designates one or more individuals; or a whole, of which the partitive designates a portion. In the latter sense, the genitive of common and abstract nouns commonly follows either the neuter of adjectives and adjective pronouns, or adverbs; and that of material nouns depends on substantives signifying quantity, weight or measure; as, mēdimnum trītīci, a bushel of wheat; libra farris; jūgērum agri; magna vis auri.

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting a part are pars, nēmo, nǐhil, etc., and also nouns denoting measure, weight, etc.; as, mŏdius, mĕdimnum, and lībra; as,

Nēmo nostrum, No one of us. Maxima pars hŏmĭnum. Nihil hūmānārun rērum. Cic. Dīmīdium mīlītum. Liv. Mědimnum trītīci. Cic.

- REM. 2. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, denoting a part of a number, including partitives and words used partitively, comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, are followed by the genitive plural, or by the genitive singular of a collective noun.
- (1.) Partitives (§104, 9,); as, ullus, nullus, sõlus, älius, üter, üterque, ütercumque, ütervis, üterlibet, neuter, alter, alterüter, äliquis, quidam, quispiam, quisquis, quisque, quisque, quisque, quisque, quisque, quisque, quisquisque, quisquisque, quisquisquisque, quisquisquisquisquisquisque, tôt, āliquot, nonnulli, plērīque, nulti, pauci, mēdius. Thus, Quisquis deõrum, Whoever of the gods. Ovid. Consilum alter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multi hominum, Many nen. Plin. Et mēdius jūvēnum ibat; i.e. between. Ovid. For the gensler of adjectives used partitively, see § 205, R. 12.
- (2.) Words used partitively; as, Expéditi mīlitum, The light-armed (of the) soldiers. Liv. Dētecti equitum. Id. Vēteres Rōmānōrum dūcum. Vell. Sāņēri deōrum, The gods above. Hor. Sancte deōrum. Virg. Dēgēnēres cānum. Plin. Piscium fēmine. Id.
- (3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior jūvěnum. Orūtõrum præstantissimus. Elóquentissimus Rōmānōrum. Optimus omnium.
- (4.) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal; also the distributive singüli; as, Equitum centum quinquāginta interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Săpientum octăvus. Hor. Singülos vestrum. Curt.

(5.) The meaning is often nearly the same, whether the partitive adjective agrees in case and number with a noun, or takes such noun after it in the genitive; as, Doctissimus Romanorum, or, doctissimus Romanus: Alter consulum, or alter consul. But the genitive cannot be used, when the adjective includes the same number of things as that of which the whole consists; as, Věniāmus ad vīvos, qui duo supersunt; not quorum duo, since these are all, though we say in English, 'of whom two survive.'

Note 1. (a.) The comparative with the genitive denotes one of two individuals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Mājor frātrum, The elder of two brothers. Maximus frātrum, The eldest of three or more.

(b.) In like manner, ŭter, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quis, ălius, and nullus, to a whole consisting of more than two; as, Uter nostrum? Which

of us (two?) Quis vestrum? Which of you (three or more?)

Note 2. Nostrum and restrum are used as partitive genitives, in preference to nostri and vestri, and are always joined with omnium even when the genitive is a subjective one; as, Patria, que communis est omnium nostrum părens. Cic. But vestrum sometimes occurs in other connections also without a partitive meaning; as, Quis ěrit tam căpidus vestrum. Cic.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometimes omitted; as, Fies nobilium tu quòque fontium, scil. ūnus. Hor. Centies sestertium, scil. centena mullia.

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions de, e, ex, or in, or in the accusative, with $\delta p dd$ or $int \delta r$; as, $N \in mo$ de iis. Alter ex censoribus. Liv. Unus ex multis. Cid. Accerrinus ex sensibus. Id. Thales, qui sopientissimus in septem fuit. Id. Primus inter omnes. Virg Crasus inter reges $\delta p ulentissimus$. Sen. Apud Helvētios nobilissīmus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, Interfectores, pars in forum, pars Syrācūsas pergunt. Liv. See § 204, R. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a genitive plural; as, Attalus Macedonum fére omnībus persuasit, Attalus persuaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctos hominum. Ovid. Cunctas provinciārum, Plin.

Note 7. In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Tōius autem injustitiæ nulla cāpitālior est, etc. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Rem nullo mōdo prōbābitem omnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, 27,) seems to be used for Rem nullo omnium mōdōrum prōbābitem.

Rem. 3. The genitive denoting a whole, may depend on a neuter adjective or adjective pronoun. With these the genitive singular is commonly used; as,

Plus ēlōquentiæ, More (of) eloquence. Tantum fidei, So much fidelity. Id tempŏris, That time. Ad hoc ætātis. Sometimes the genitive plural; as, Id mūsēriārum. Ter. Armōrum quantum. Cæs.

Note 1. (a.) Most neuter adjectives used partitively denote quantity; as, tantum, quantum, aliquantum, plus, minus, minimum, dimidium, multum, nimium, paulum, plūrimum, reliquum; with the compounds and diminutives, tantulum, tantundem, quantulum, quantulumcumque, etc.; to which add medium, summum, ultimum, aliud, etc. The pronouns thus used are hoc, id, illud, istud, udem, quod, and quid, with their compounds, aliquid, quidquid, quippiam, quidquam, quodcumque.

(b.) Most of these adjectives and pronouns may either agree with their nouns, or take a genitive; but the latter is more common. Tantum, quantum, aliquantum, and plus, when they denote quantity, are used with a genitive only, as are also quid and its compounds, when they denote a part, sort, etc., and quöd in the sense of quantum. Thus, Quantum crēvit Nīlus, tantum spei in annum est. Sen. Quid mūličris uxōrem hābes? What kind of a woman... Ter. Aliquid formæ. Cic. Quid hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornāmentorum fuit, id Verres abstălit.

NOTE 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, when followed by a genitive, are to be accounted substantives, and in this construction are found only in the nominative and accusative.

Note 3. Sometimes the genitive after these adjectives and pronouns is a neuter adjective, of the second declension, without a noun; as, Tantum boni, So much good. Si quid hābes növi, If you have any thing new. Cic. Quid rēlīqui est? Ter. Nihil is also used with such a genitive; as, Nihil sincēri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction occurs very rarely with neuter adjectives in ĕ of the third declension, and only in connection with neuters of the second declension; as, Si quidquam non dīco cīvīlis sed hāmāni esset. Liv.

Note 4. In the poets and in the prose writers later than Cicero, neuter adjectives in the plural number are sometimes followed by a genitive, either singular or plural, with a partitive signification; as, Extrêma impérii, The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viārum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opāca löcörum. Virg. Antiqua fædērum. Liv. Cuncta campōrum. Tac. Exercent colles, atque hōrum asperrima pascunt. Virg. Cf. § 205, R. 9.

REM. 4. The adverbs săt, sătis, părum, nimis, ăbunde, largiter, affătim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as.

Sat rătionis, Enough of reason. Virg. Sătis eloquentiæ, părum săpientiæ, Enough of eloquence, (yet) but little wisdom. Sall. Nimis instdiărum. Cic. Terroris et fraudis ăbunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largiter. Plaut. Copiărum affătim. Liv. Quum partim illorum milh f âmthârissimi essent. Cic.

NOTE 1. The above words, though generally adverbs, seem, in this use, rather to be nouns or adjectives.

Note 2. (a.) The genitives gentium, terrārum, löcī, and lōcōrum, with certain adverbs of place, strengthen their meaning; as, Usquam terrārum. Just. Usquam gentium, Any where whatever. Plaut. Ubi terrārum sūmus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Abīre quo terrārum possent. Liv. Ubi sit lòcī. Plin. Eo lōcī, equivalent to eo lòco, In that place. Tac. Eōdem lòcī res est. Cic. Nescire quo lòcī esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.

(b.) The adverbs of place thus used are ŭbi, ŭbinam, ŭbicumque, ŭbiŭbi, ŭbivis, ubique, unde, usquam, nusquam, quo, quōcumque, quōvis, quōquo, ձliquo, hīc, hūc, eo, eōdem. Lōt also occurs after ibi and ibidem; gentium after longe; as, Ibi lōci, In that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. So, mīnīme gentium, By no means. Ter. Vīcīnīce in the gentitive is used by the comic writers after hie and huc; as, Hic proximæ vīcīnīce. Plaut. Huc vīcīnīce. Ter. Cf. § 221, R. 3, (4.)

Note 3. Huc, eo, quo, when used figuratively to express a degree, are joined also with other genitives; as, Eo insolentiæ f urorisque processit, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc enim inalorum ventum est. Curt. Huccine rerum venimus? Have we come to this? Pers. Eo miseriärum venire, To such a pitch of misery. Sall. Quo amentiæ progressi sitis. Liv.

Note 4. The genitives löci, löcörum, and tempöris, appear to be redundant after the adverbs adhac, inde, intérea, postea, tum, and tunc, in expressions denoting time; as, Adhac löcörum, Till now. Plaut. Inde löci, After that. Lucr. Intérea löci, In the mean time. Ter. Postea löci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum tempöris, and tunc tempöris, At that time. Just. Löcörum also occurs after id, denoting time; as, Ad id locörum, Up to that time. Sall. Cf. R. 3.

Note 5. When the genitive *ijus* occurs after *quoad*, in such connections as the following: *Quoad ijus făcere pôtăris*. Cic.; or passively, *Quoad ijus fieri possit*, As far as may be. Cic.; the *ijus* refers to the preceding clause; literally as much of it as possible.

Note 6. Pridie and postridie, though reckoned adverbs, are followed by a genitive, depending on the noun dies contained in them; as, Pridie ējus diēi, lit. On the day before that day, i. e. The day before. Cic. Pridie insidiarum, The day before the ambush. Tac. Postrīdie ējus diēi, The next day. Cæs. When they are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood. Cf. § 238, 1, (b.)

Note 7. Adverbs in the superlative degree, like their adjectives, are follow-

ed by a genitive; as, Optime omnium, Best of all. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 213. A noun, limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the objective genitive, to denote the relation expressed in English by of, in, or in respect to; as,

Avidus laudis, Desirous of praise. Appětens gloriæ, Eager for glory. Měmor virtūtis, Mindful of virtue.

Plēna timōris, Full of fear. Egēnus ăquæ, Destitute of water. Doctus fandi, Skilful in speaking.

So, Nescia mens fāti, The mind ignorant in regard to fate. Virg. Impŏtens ræ, lit. Powerless in respect to anger, i. e. unable to control it. Liv. Hömines expertes vēritātis, Men destitute of truth. Cic. Lactis abundans, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra fērax arborum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Tēnax propositi vir, A man tenacious of his purpose. Hor. Æger anımı, Sick in mind. Liv. Löcus mēdus jūgūli summique lacerti, i. e. between. Ovid. Mõrum discrete arborum salatus Hor. Libas libasum La Luthar arborum discrete arborum salatus lacerti, i. e. between. versus. Tac. Operum solūtus. Hor. Liber lāborum. Id. Intéger vitæ scelerisque pūrus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor. Vīni pollens Līber. Plaut.

From the above examples, it will be seen that the genitive after an adjective is sometimes translated by other words besides of, in, or in respect to, though the relation which it denotes remains the same. Cf. 211, R. 12.

REMARK 1. The following classes of adjectives, which, as denoting a relation to a thing, are called relative adjectives (§ 104, 13), are frequently limited by a genitive; viz. (1.) Verbals in ax; as, capax, edax, ferax, fagax, pervicax, tenax, etc.—(2.) Participials in ns, and a few in tus, with their compounds; as, amans, appètens, cupiens, efficiens, patiens, impatiens, stiens:—consultus, doctus, sölütus.—(3.) Adjectives denoting desire or aversion; as, ăvārus, ăvidus, cupidus, studiosus; fastīdiosus:—participation; as, particeps, affinis, consors, exsors, expers, inops: -knowledge, experience, capacity, and their contraries; as, callidus, compos, conscius, gnārus, ignārus, pērītus, impos, potens, impotens, prūdens, imprūdens, expertus, inexpertus, conscius, inscius, nescius, insolens, insolitus, insuetus, rudis, sollers:-me mory and for getfulness; as, memor, immemor, etc.:-certainty and doubt; as, certus, incertus, ambiguus, dubius, suspensus:-care and negligence; as, anxius, sollicitus, providus, improvidus, securus:—fear and confidence; as, pavidus, timidus, trepidus, imparidus, fidens, interritus:—guill and innocens, cence; as, noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, minifestus, innocus, insons:—plenty and want; as, abundans, plenus, dives, satus, lurgus, inops, egēnus, inānis, pauper, parcus, solūtus, vacuus.

(a.) In the poets and later prose writers, many other adjectives, particularly those which express mental emotions, are in like manner limited by a genitive, especially by animi, ingenii, mentis, îræ, militiæ, belli, laboris, rerum, ævi, f útūri, morum, and fidei.

Rem. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus maris, et viarum, militiæque. Hor. Fessus viæ. Stat. Fessus maris. Hor. Attonitus serpentis. Sil. Mens interrita lēti. Ovid.

REM. 3. Participles in ns, when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se amans, Loving himself. Cic. Măre terram appetens. Id.

- REM. 4. Instead of the genitive, denoting of, in, or in respect to, a different construction is sometimes used after many of these adjectives; as,
- (1.) An infinitive or a subjunctive clause; as, Certus îre, Determined to go. Ovid. Cantāre pērīti. Virg. Fēlīcior unguĕre tēla. Id. Anxius quid facto opus sit. Sall. Vīve mēmor quam sis ævi brēvis. Hor.—So dliēnus, avidus, callīdus, cipīdus, firmus, frēquens, gnārus, impotens, inops, lætus, largus, līber, pollens, mēnor, dubius, etc.
- (2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Adrem ăvidior. Ter. Avidus in direptiones. Liv. Animus căpax ad pracepta. Ovid. Ad căsum fortūnamque fēlix. Cic. Ad fraudem calidus. Id. Diligens ad custodiendum. Id. Negligentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam pēritus. Cic. Ad bella rūdis. Liv. Põtens in res bellicas. Id. Alācer ad mālēfīcia. Cic. Inter bellum et pācem nihil mēdium est. Id.—So with ad, fērtils, firmus, infirmus, pŏtens, stērilis, etc.—with in, cūpīdus, parcus, pōtens, prōdīgus, etc.
- (3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as, Nūdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, hŭměrosque deo sīmīlis Id. Cētěra fulvus. Hor. Cuncta pollens. Sen. Ag. See § 234, II.
- (4.) An ablative with a preposition; as, Avidus in pěcūniis, Eager in regard to money. Cic. Anxius de fămā. Quint. Rūdis in jūre cīvīli. Cic. Pērītus de agrīcultūrā Varr. Prūdens in jūre cīvīli. Cic. Reus de vi. Id. Pūrus ab cultu hūmāno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cic. Sollicitus de re. Id. Sūper scēlēre suspectus. Sall. Inops ab ămīcis. Cic. Pauper in ære. Hor. Mōdicus in cultu. Plin. Ab ăquis stērilis. Apul. Cōpiōsus a frūmento. Cic. Ab ĕquitātu firmus. Id. So with in, immōdicus, parcus, über:—with ab, āliēnus, beātus, extorris, immūnis, inops, liber, nūdus, orbus, vācuus.
- (5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rūdis, Rude in art. Ovid. Regni crīmīne insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prūdens consilio. Just. Æger pēdībus. Sall. Præstans ingēnio. Cic. Mŏdīcus sčvērītāte. Tac. Nīhīl insīdiis vācuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissīmus. Plaut. Mēdius Pollūce et Castŏre. Ovid. Cf. Rem. 5.

In many instances, the signification of the accusative and ablative after adjectives differs, in a greater or less degree, from that of the genitive.

- REM. 5. As many of the adjectives, which are followed by a genitive, admit of other constructions, the most common use of each, with particular nouns, can, in general, be determined only by recourse to the dictionary, or to the classics. Some have,
- (1.) The genitive only; as, běnignus, căpax, exsors, impos, impôtens, insătiābilis, irrītus, lībērālis, mòdicus, mūnificus, prælargus, and many others.
- (2.) The genitive more frequently; as, compos, consors, egenus, exheres, expers, fertilis, indigus, inops, parcus, particeps, pauper, prodigus, prosper, stérilis.
- (3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, dīves, fēcundus, fērax, immūnis, inānis, immodīcus, jējūnus, largus, nīmius, opulentus, pērītus, plēnus, potens, pūrus, refertus, sātur, ūber, vācuus.
- (4.) The ablative more frequently; as, åbundans, ålienus, cassus, cōpiōsus, extorris, firmus, fētus, frequens, grāvīdus, grāvīs, infirmus, līber, lŏcuples, lætus, mactus, nūdus, ŏnustus, orbus, pollens, sātiātus, truncus, vālīdus, vīduus.
 - (5.) The ablative only; as, beātus, crēber, densus, mǔtīlus, tǔmīdus, turgīdus.

For the ablative after many of the preceding adjectives, see § 250.

- REM. 6. Some adjectives usually limited by a dative, sometimes take a genitive instead of the dative; as, similis, dissimilis, etc. See § 222, R. 2.
- REM. 7. Many adjectives in addition to the genitive or ablative denoting of or in respect to, take also another case to express a different relation; as, Mens sibi consein recti. Cf. § 222, R. 3. Conscius has also sometimes the dative instead of the genitive of the thing; as, conscius huic facinori. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER VERBS

§ 214. Sum, and verbs of valuing, are followed by a genitive, denoting degree of estimation; as,

A me argentum, quanti est, sūmito, Take of me so much money as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni astimābat pēcāniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager nune plūris est, quam tunc fuit. Id. Tanti est, It is worth so much; and, absolutely, It is worth while. Cic. Hūjus non fācio, I don't care that for it.

REMARK 1. (a.) Verbs of valuing are joined with the genitive, when the value is expressed in a general or indefinite manner by:

(1.) A neuter adjective of quantity; as, tanti, quanti, plūris, minōris, magni, permagni, plūrimi, maximi, minimi, parvi, tantīdem, quantīcumque, quantīvis, quantītībet, but only very rarely multi and mājōris.

(2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, nihili, pili, těruncii, and also pensi and

(b.) But if the price or value of a thing is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive, other than assis, flocci, etc., it is put in the ablative. Cf. § 252.

REM. 2. The verbs of valuing are æstimo, existimo, dūco, fácio, fīo, hǎbeo, pendo, pāto, depūto, taxo. Thus, Ut quanti quisque se ipse fáciat, tanti fīat ab ámīcis, That as much as each one values hinself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Sed quia parvi id dūcēret. Id. Hônōres si magni non pūtēmus. Id. Non assis fácis? Catull. Nēque quod dixi, flocci existimat. Plaut.

Note 1. (a.) The phrase æqui bŏni, or æqui bŏnique făcio, or consŭlo, I take a thing in good part, am satisfied with it, may be classed with genitives of value; as, Nos æqui bōnīque făcimus. Liv. So, Bŏni consŭluit Plin.—(b.) A genitive of price is joined also to cæno, hǎbīto, dốceo, etc.; as, quanti hǎbūtas? what rent do you pay for your house or lodging? quanti dốcet? what are his terms in teaching?

NOTE 2. After æstimo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parvo, nihilo, are sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, Dāta magno æstimas, accepta parvo. Sen. Pro nihilo, also, occurs after dūco, hābeo, and pūto; and nihil with æstimo and mŏror. Cf. § 231, R. 5.

NOTE 3. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and hūjus, may be referred to a noun understood, as prētii, œvis, pondēvis, mōmenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing; as, Æstimo te magni, i. e. hōminem magni prētii. Scio ējus ordīnis auctoritātem semper āpud te magni fuisse, i. e. rem magni mōmenti. The words assis, etc., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun; as, prētio, rem, etc.

REM. 3. Statements of price, also, when general or indefinite, are put in the genitive after verbs of buying, selling, letting, and hiring; as,

Mercātōres non tantīdem vendunt, quanti ēmērunt. Cic. Nulla pestis hūmāno gēnēri plūris stētit, quam īra. Sen.

Note 1. Verbs of buying, selling, etc., are *emo, vendo, the neutral passive, veneo, consto, prosto, and liceo, to be exposed for sale.

Note 2. With verbs of buying, selling, etc., the ablatives magno, permagno, plairimo, parco, minimo, and nihilo are often used instead of the genitive; as, Non potest parvo res magna constâre. Sen. Quanti èmère possum minimo? What is the lowest price I can buy at? Plant. Sometimes also the adverbs câre, bène, and mâle take the place of the genitive or ablative of price.

§ 215. (1.) Misĕreor, misĕresco, and the impersonals misĕret, pænitet, püdet, tædet, and piget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised; as,

Misĕrēmini sŏciōrum, Pity the allies. Cic. Misĕrescite rēgis, Pity the king. Virg. Mea māter, tui me misēret, mei piget, I pity you, and am dissatisfied with myself. Acc. Eos ineptiārum penitet. Cic. Frātris me pūdet pigetque. Ter. Me cīvītātis mōrum piget tedetque. Sall. So the compound distædet; Haud quod tui me, nēque domi distædeat. Plaut.; and the passive; Numquam suscepti nēgōtii eum pertæsum est. Nep. Lentitūdīnis eōrum pertæsa. Tac. Misēritum est me tuārum fortūnārum. Ter. Cāve te frātrum misēreātur. Cic. Pūdet (me) deōrum hōmīnumque, I am filled with shame in reference both to gods and men. Liv.

NOTE 1. Misërescit is sometimes used in the same manner as misëret; as, Nunc te misërescat mei. Ter. Misëreo, as a personal verb, also, occurs with a genitive; as, Ipse sui misëret. Lucr.

REMARK. The genitive after the above impersonals seems to depend on some general word constituting the grammatical subject of such verbs, and signifying, matter, business, fact, case, circumstances, conduct, character, etc., of § 211, R. 8, (3); and § 209, R. 3, (4.) Instead of the genitive with its omitted noun, an infinitive or clause with quod or with an interrogative particle is sometimes used as a subject; as, Non me hoc jam dicere pudebit. Cic. Non partiet me quantum profeccin, I am not dissatisfied with my progress. Id. These verbs have also sometimes a nominative; as, Me quiden have conditio non partiet. Plant. Non te have pudent? Ter.

Note 2. Miseret occurs with an accusative of the object, instead of a genitive; as, Měnědēmi vicem miseret me. Ter. So, also, Pertæsus ignāviam suam. Suet.

Note 3. (a.) These impersonals, as active verbs, take also an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. See § 229, R. 6.— (b.) And sometimes also the accusative of the neuter pronouns and of nihil, denoting to what degree the feelings are exercised; as, Sequitur ut nthil (säpientem,) paniteat. Cic. Cf. § 232, (3.)

(2.) Sătăgo is sometimes followed by a genitive denoting in what respect; as,

Is sătăgit rērum suārum, He is busily occupied with his own affairs. Ter. This compound is often written separately, and in either case the genitive seems to depend upon sat. See § 212, R. 4. Agito, with săt, in like manner, is followed by a genitive; as, Nunc ăgitas sat tüte tuārum rērum. Plaut.

§ 216. Rěcordor, měmĭni, rěmĭniscor, and obliviscor, are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered or forgotten; as,

Flagitiorum suðrum récordābitur. Cic. Omnes grádus ætātis récordor tuæ, I call to mind all the periods of your life. Id. Mēmini vīvorum, I am mindful of the living. Id. Numeros mēmini, I remember the measure. Virg. Rēminisci vētēris fāmæ. Nep. Dulces moriens rēminiscitur Argos. Virg. Rēminisci amīcos. Ovid. Oblitus sui. Virg. Injūriārum oblīviscitur. Nep. Oblīviscor injūrias. Cic. Oblīviscēre Graios. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) When the thing remembered or forgotten is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective, it is always put in the accusative. An accusative of the person with these verbs is unusual, except that měmíni, when referring to a contemporary, always takes an accusative of the person; as, Cinnam měmíni. Cic.

- (b.) An infinitive or a dependent clause sometimes follows these verbs; as, Mëmento mihi suppëtias ferre. Plant. Esse quoque in fatis rëminiscitur, affore tempus, quo mare, etc. Ovid. Obliti quid dèceat. Hor. Mëmini te scribëre. Cic. Quæ sum passura récordor. Ovid.
- REM. 2. Récordor and měmini, to remember, are sometimes followed by an ablative with de; as, Pětimus ut de suis liběris récordentur. Cic. De palla mémento. Plant.
- REM. 3. Měmini, signifying to make mention of, has a genitive, or an ablative with de; as, Něque hūjus rei měminit poèta. Quint. Měministi de exsůlibus. Cic. With věnit mili in mentem, the person or thing may be made the subject of věnit; as, Misěræ údi rěnit in mentem mortis mětus. Plaut. Věnit hoc mili in mentem; or an infinitive or subjunctive clause may supply the place of the subject:—for the genitive with this phrase, as in Solet mili in mentem věnīre illius tempôris, see § 211, R. 8, (5.) The genitive with rècordor is very rare.
- § 217. Verbs of accusing, convicting, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive denoting the crime; as,

Arguit me furti, He charges me with theft. Allerum accusat probri, He accuses another of villany. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) To this rule belong the verbs of

Accusing; accūso, ago, arcesso, arguo, cito, dēfēro, increpto, incūso, insīmūlo, postūlo, and more rarely alligo, anguiro, astringo, capto, increpto, urgeo, interrogo, reum ago or fācio, alicui diem dīco, cum aliquo āgo.—Convicting; convico, coarguo, prehendo, têneor, obstringor, obligor.—Con de mning; damno, condemno, infāmo, and more rarely jūdico, noto, plector.—Acquitting; absolvo, lībēro, purgo, and rarely solvo. To the verbs of accusing, etc., may be added the adjectives denoting guilt and innocence, which likewise take a genitive. Cf. § 213, R. 1, (3.)

(b.) The genitives which follow these verbs are, andāciu, ăvāritiu, cadis, falsi, furti, ignāviu, inpietātis, injūriārum, levitātis, mājestātis, māleficii, mendācii, parrīcādii, peccāti, pēculātus, probri, proditionis, rei cāpitālis, répētundārum, scēlēris, stultītu, tēmēritātis, timoris, vantātis, vēnēficii, etc.

Rem. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, an ablative with de is often used after accūso, dēfēro, anquīro, arguo, postūlo, damno, condemno, absolvo, and purgo; as Accūsāre de negligentiā. Cic. De vi condemnāti sunt. Id. De repetundis est postūlāus. Id. Sometimes with in, after accūso, coarguo, convinco, tēneor, and dēprēliendor; as, In quo te accūso (Cic.); and after lībēro, with a or ab; as, A scēlēre lībērāti sūmus. Cic. Accūso and damno with inter occur in the phrases inter sīcārios accusāre, etc., to charge with assassination.

- (b.) With some of the above verbs, an ablative without a preposition is often used; as, Liběrāre culpā. Cic. Crimen quo argui posset. Nep. Prōconsūlem postulāvērat rēpētundis. Tac. This happens especially with general words denoting crime; as, scēlus, mālēficium, peccātum, etc.; as, Me peccāto solvo. Liv. The ablatives crimine and nōmine, without a preposition, are often inserted before the genitive; as, Arcessēre āliquem crīmine ambitās. Liv. Nōmine scēlēris conjūrātionisque damnāti. Cic.; and when not so inserted they are to be understood.
- (c.) Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive; as, Eum accūsābant quod sŏciĕtātem fēcisset. Nep. So the infinitive with the accusative. Quid? quod me—arguit sērum accessisse? Ovid.
- REM. 3. (a.) The punishment is commonly expressed by the genitive; as, căpitis, mortis, multa, pēcūniæ, quadrupli, octupli; but sometimes by the ablative; as, căpite, morte, multā, pēcūniā: and always by this case when a definite sum is mentioned; as, quindēcim millibus æris: or the accusative with ad or in;

as, ad pænam, ad bestias, ad mětalla, in mětallum, in expensas;—sometimes, though rarely, in the poets, by the dative; as, Damnātus morti. Lucr.— (b.) Võti or rõtõrum, and less frequently võto or võtõs damnāri, signifies 'to be condemned to fulfil one's vow,' and is consequently equivalent to 'to obtain what one wishes.' So also in the active voice, Damnābis tu quòque võtis. Virg. Perdo is used by Plautus as a verb of accusing, with căptiis; Quem ègo căptits perdam, will charge with a capital offence. So căptie or căptiis periclitări, Plaut., signifies 'to be in peril of one's life.' With plecto and plector, căput is used in the ablative only.—(c.) Damui infecti is put in the genitive (depending upon nomine understood) after sătisdo, prōmito, stipălări, rēprōmito, and căvo; as, Sī quis in păriete dēmōliendo damni infecti prōmīsērit. Cic.

REM. 4. Accüso, incūso, and insimūlo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, Si id me non accūsas. Plaut. Quæ me incūsāvēras. Ter. Sic me insīmūlāre falsum fācīnus. Plaut. See § 231,

Rem. 5.

- Rem. 5. (a.) The following verbs of accusing, etc., are not followed by a genitive of the crime, but, as active verbs, by an accusative:—călumnior, carpo, corripto, criminor, culpo, excuso, multo, pūnio, répréhendo, sāgillo, taxo, trādūco, ritūpēro; as, Culpāre infécunditātem agrōrum. Colum. Excūsāre errorem et adolescentiam. Liv.
- (b.) This construction also sometimes occurs with accüso, incüso, arguo, and tarryguo; as, Ejus öväritiam perfidiumque accüsārat. Nep. Culpam arguo. Liv. With multo, the punishment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition; as, Exsiliis, morte multantur. Cic.
- \$ 218. Verbs of admonishing, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive of the person or thing respecting which the admonition is given; as,

Milites temporis monet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admonobat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis sua. Sall.

Note. The verbs of admonishing are moneo, admoneo, commoneo, and commone fácio.

REMARK I. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing sometimes have an ablative with de; as, De æde Tellūris me admones. Cic.—sometimes an accusative of a pronoun or adjective in the neuter gender; as, Eos hoc moneo Cic. Illud me admoneo. Id.; and in the passive, Multa admonemur. Id.—rarely also a noun in the accusative; as, Eam rem nos bocus admonuit. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing are also often followed by an infinitive or clause; as, Söror alma mönet succēdēre Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Virg. Mönet, ut suspiciones vitet. Cas. Sed eos hoc möneo, dēsinant fūrēre. Cic. Mönet rătionem frümenti esse hābendam. Hirt. Immorfālia ne spēres mönet annus. Hor. Discipilos id ūnum möneo, ut, etc. Quint. Möneo quid facto ŏpus sit. Ter. See § 273, 2.

§ 219. Refert and interest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote; as,

Hūmānītātis rēfert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Rēfert omnium ant-madverti in mālos. Tac. Interest omnium recte fūcere, It concerns all to do right. Cic.

REMARK 1. Instead of the genitive of the substantive pronouns, the adjective pronouns mea, tua, sua, nostra, and vestra, are used; as,

Mea nihil réfert, It does not concern me. Ter. Illud mea magni intérest, That greatly concerns me. Cic. Tua et mea maxime intérest, te vâlère. Cic. M'agis reipüblica intérest quam mea. Id. Magni intérest Cicèronis, vel mea pottus, vel mehercule utriusque, me intervénire dicenti. Id.

- Note. Réfert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the pronouns mea, tua, etc., and most frequently without either such pronoun or a genitive; as, quid réfert? magni or magnopère réfert.
- REM. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, grammarians differ. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plural neuter, agreeing with commoda or the like understood; as, Interest mea, i. e. est inter mea, it is among my concerns. Refert tua, i. e. refert se ad tua, It refers itself to your concerns. Others think that they are in the ablative singular feminine, agreeing with re, causā, etc., understood, or in the dative. The better opinion seems to be, that they are in the accusative feminine for meam, tuam, suam, etc., that refert was originally rem fert, and that hence the e of refert is long.
- REM. 3. Instead of the genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad hönören meum interest quam primum urbem me vēnīre. Cic. Quid id ad me aut ad mean rem rēfert. Plaut.—sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid te igitur rētūlit? Plaut—or a dative; as, Die quid rēfērat intra nātūre fines vīventi. Hor.
- REM. 4. The subject of these verbs, or the thing which is of interest or importance, is sometimes expressed by a neuter pronoun; as, Id mea minime rifert. Ter. Hoc věhěmenter intěrest reipūblicæ. Cic.; and sometimes by an infinitive with its accusative, or ut, or an interrogative particle with a subjunctive clause; as, multum mea intěrest te esse diligentem, or ut diligens sis, or utrum diligens sis nec ne. When the infinitive alone is used with rēfert or intěrest, the preceding subject is understood; as, omnium intěrest recte fáceřre, sell. se.
- Rem. 5. The degree of interest or importance is expressed by adverbs or by neuter adjectives, etc., in the accusative or genitive; as, māgis, magnöpēre, vēhēmenter, pārum, mīnīme, etc.; multum, plūs, plūrimum, nīnīl, āliquid, etc.; tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, plūris. But mīnīmo discrīmīne rēfert is found in Juv. 5, 123.
- § 220. Many verbs which are usually otherwise construed, are sometimes followed by a genitive. This rule includes
- 1. Certain verbs denoting an affection of the mind; ango, discricior, excricio, fallo, pendeo, which are followed by animi; decipior, desipio, fallor, fustidio, invideo, miror, vereor; as, Absurde facis, qui angas te animi. Plaut. Me animi fallit. Lucr. Decipitur laborum. Hor. Desipiebam mentis. Plaut. Justitiæne prius mirer belline laborum. Virg.
- 2. The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstineo, dēsino, purgo. Hor.; dēsisto. Virg.; laudo, pröhibeo. Sil.; lēvo, participo. Plaut.; lībēro. Liv.; dissolvo. Tibull.: compare līber lābōrum; ŏpērum vācuus; pūrus scēlēris. § 213.
- 3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to want or need, to free, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are abundo, careo, compleo, expleo, impleo, egeo, indigeo, saturo, obsaturo, scateo; as, Adolescentem suae temeritais implet, He fills the youth with his own rashness. Liv. Animum explesse flammae. Virg. Egeo consilii. Cic. Non tam artis indigent quam laboris. ld. See §§ 249 and 250, (2.)
- 4. Pótior, which also is usually followed by an ablative; as, Urbis pótiri, To make oneself master of the city. Sall. Pótiri regni (Cic.), hostium (Sall.), rerum, To make oneself master of the world. Cic. Pótio (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum nunc pótieit servitūtis, He has made him partaker of slavery. In the same writer, pótitus est hostium signifies, 'he fell into the hands of the enemy.' So, also, Aliquem compótire prædæ or vöti. App. So, Rērum ādeptus est. Tac. Dóminātionis āpisci. Id. Regnārit pôpūlorum. Hor.

GENITIVE OF PLACE.

§ 221. 1. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive; as,

Hábitat Milēti, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Rōmæ fáciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv. Hercůles Týri maxime cölitur. Cic.

Note. For the construction of nouns of the third declension or plural number, see § 254. The following appears to be the best explanation that has been given of this diversity of construction, depending solely on the number or declension of the noun. The name of the town 'where' or 'in which' is probably neither in the genitive nor the ablative, but always, as in Greek, in the dative. Since the genitive and dative are alike in the singular of the first declension and the dative and ablative plural are the same in all declensions, such examples as Rōmæ and Alhēnis present no difficulty. In the third declension the dative and ablative singular were anciently alike, and in such ablatives as Anwūri, Carthāgīni, Lācēdæmōni, the old form remains, see § 82, Exc. 5, (c.) In the second declension there was an old dative in oi, as in Greek, which was commonly changed to o, but sometimes to i: and the latter is still found in nulli, uni, etc., see § 107, and in the adjective pronouns; as, illi, etc.

REMARK 1. Names of islands and countries are sometimes put in the genitive, like names of towns; as, Ithácæ vīvēre, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Coregræ fuimus. Id. Cónon plārīmum Cypri vivit, Tīmótheus Lesbi. Nep. Quum Miltiades dómum Chersōnēsi hābuit. Id. Crētæ jussit consīdēre Apollo. Virg. Römæ Númīd-

iwque făcinăra ejus memorat. Sall.

Rem. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, the ablative of names of towns of the first and second declension and singular number, is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Rex Tŷro dēcēdi, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Corinto et Athēnis et Lācēdæmāne nunciāta est victūria. Id. Pons quem ille Abŷdo fēcērat. Id. Hujus exemplar Rōmā nullum hābēmus. Vitruv. Non Lībyæ, non ante Tŷro. Virg. For the explanation of this apparent anomaly, see the preceding note; in accordance with which it may be remarked, that the adverbs of place, ŭbi, ibidem, ālībi, ālīcūbi, hic, illīc, istīc, etc., appear from their form to be ancient datives.—(b.) When the noun is qualified by an adjective, it is put, not in the genitive, but in the ablative with in; as, In ipsā Alexandrīā. Cic. And poetically without in, Gēnus Longā nostrum dōmīnābītur Albā. Virg.—(c.) When urbs, appidum, bīcus, etc., follow the genitive of place as appositions, they are put in the ablative either with, or, more rarely, without, in; as, Archias Antiōchiæ nātus est, cēlebri quondam urbe. Cic. Cīves Rōmānos Neāpotī, in cēlēberrīmo oppīdo sæpe vīdīmus. Id. But when in urbe, etc., precede the name of a town, the latter also is put in the ablative; as, In appīdo Antiōchiæ est,—in the town of Antioch. Cic., where the genitive depends on appīdo.

REM. 3. The genitives domi, mīlītiæ, belli, and hūmi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tënuit se dŏmi, He staid at home. Cic. Vir dŏmi clārus. Liv. Spargit hŭmi jussos dentes,—on the ground. Ovid. Militiæ and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to dŏmi; as, Una semper mīlitiæ et dŏmi fuimus,—both at home and in the camp. Ter. So Dŏmi mīlitiæque. Cic. Et dŏmi et mīlitiæ. Id. Mīlitiæ dŏmīque. Liv. Mīlitiæ dŏmīque, in war and in peace. Hor.

(1.) Domi is thus used with the possessives meæ, tuæ, suæ, nostræ, restræ, and dlienæ; as, Domi nostræ vixit, He lived at my house. Cic. Apud eum sic fui tamquam meæ domi Id. Sacrificium, quod alienæ domi fièret invisere. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, generally with a preposition, is used; as, In vidua domo. Ovid. Paterna domo. Id. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Meā in domo. Hor. In domo suā. Nep. So, instead of hūmi, 'upon the ground,'

hằmo is sometimes used, with or without a preposition; as, In hằmo ǎrēnōsā. Ovid. Sēdēre hằmo nūdā. Id.

(2.) When a genitive denoting the possessor follows, either domi or in domo is used; as, Doprohensus domi Casaris. Cic. Domi illius fuisti. Id. In domo Casaris. Id. In domo ejus. Nep.

(3.) The ablative domo for domi also occurs, but not in Cicero; as, Ego id nunc expérior domo. Plant. Domo se ténère. Nep. Domo abditus. Suet. Bello for belli is found in Livy—Domi bellôque. So, also, homo for homi; Strâtus homo. Stat. Figit homo plantas. Virg.: and in homo lamen figit. Ovid.

(4.) Terræ is sometimes used like hůmi; as, Sacra terræ cēlūvīmus. Liv. Projectus terræ. Virg. Ignes terræ condit. Luc. So, also, ărēnæ; Truncum rēlīquit ărēnæ. Virg.: and vīcīniæ; Proximæ vīcīniæ hábitat. Plaut.

(5.) The genitive of names of towns, dómi, militiæ, etc., is supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, oppido, ædibus, sólo, lóco, tempôre, etc., but see a different explanation above in Note.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

II. Certain adverbs are followed by the genitive. See § 212, R. 4.

III. The genitive plural sometimes depends on the preposition tenus; as,

Cūmārum těnus, As far as Cumæ. Cœl. Crūrum těnus. Virg. Látěrum těnus. Id. Urbium Coregræ těnus. Liv.—For the ablative after těnus, and for the place of the preposition, see § 241, and R. 1.

DATIVE.

§ 222. 1. The dative is the case of reference, as it denotes the object with reference to which the subject acts, or in reference to which it possesses any specified quality; or, in other words, the object for which, to the benefit or loss of which, any thing is or is done. Hence, in distinction from the dative of the end (§ 227) the dative of reference is called dativus commodi et incommodi, the dative of advantage and disadvantage; as,

Scrībo vōbis hunc lībrum, I write this book for you. Prōsum tībi, or Tībi ūtilis sum, I am useful to you.

2. Hence the dative of advantage and disadvantage may be used (a) with adjectives and particles whose meaning is incomplete unless the object is mentioned in reference to which the quality exists. (b) With verbs both transitive and intransitive. If transitive they take an accusative of the nearer and a dative of the remoter object, if intransitive they take a dative only. (c) With certain verbs compounded with prepositions, after which the dative is used instead of the case which the preposition, if separate, would govern. (d) After a few verbal substantives derived from verbs which govern a dative.

DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

3. A noun limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the dative, to denote the *object* to which the quality is directed; as,

Utilis agris, Useful to the fields Juv. Jūcundus amīcis, Agreeable to his friends. Mart. Inimīcus quieti, Unfriendly to rest. Id. Charta inūtilis scrībendo, Paper not useful for writing. Plin.

Note. The dative is commonly translated by the prepositions to or for; but sometimes by other prepositions, or without a preposition.

REMARK 1. Adjectives signifying useful, pleasant, friendly, fit, like, inclined, ready, easy, clear, equal, and their opposites, also those signifying near, many compounded with con, and verbals in bilis, are followed by the dative; as,

Félix tuis, Propitious to your friends. Virg. Orātio ingrāta Gallis, A speech displeasing to the Gauls. Cæs. Anīcus týrannidi, Friendly to tyranny. Nep. Labori inhábilis, Unsuited to labor. Colum. Patri similis, like his father. Cic. Nihil tam est Lýsiæ dīversum, quam Isocrātes. Aptum tempŏri. Id. Mālo prōnus. Sen. Promptus sēdītioni. Tac. Cuivis fācīle est. Ter. Mīhi certum est. Cic. Par frātri tuo. Id. Falsa vēris finitima sunt. Id. Ocūli concolores corpŏri. Colum. Multis bonis flēbilis. Hor. Mors est terribilis iis, quōrum, etc. Cic.

- (a.) The following are some of the adjectives included in Rem. 1, viz. grātus, acceptus, dulcis, jūcundus, lætus, suāvis; ingrūtus, insuāvis, injūcundus, mõlestus, grāvis, ācerbus, ödissus, tristis;—ātīlis, inatīlis, bōnus, sāluber, sālūtāris, fructuōsus; cālāmitōsus, damnōsus, funestus, noxius, pestifer, pernīciōsus, exitiōsus:—āmīcus, bēnēvolus, cārus, fāmīliāris, œquus, fīdus, fīdēlis, projntius, sēcundus; inimīcus, adversus, emālus, āliēnus, contrārius, infestus, infidus, iniquus, īrātus;—aptus, accommōdātus, appōsītus, hābīlis, idōneus, opportūnus; ineptus, inhābīlis, importūnus, inconvēniens;—œquālis, par, impar, dispar, sīmīlis, dissimīlis, dissimīlis, discilor:—prōnus, prōclīvis, prōpensus, promptus, pārātus:—fācīlis, difīcīlis:—öpertus, conspīcuus, mānifestus, perspīcuus, obscūrus, certus, compertus, nōtus, ambīguus, dūbius, ignōtus, incertus, insōlītus;—vīcīnus, fīnītīmus, confinis, contermīnus, propior, proxīmus, cognātus, concolor, concors, congruus, consanguīneus, consentāneus, consōnus, convēniens, contiguus, continus, continens.
- (b.) Many adjectives of other significations, including some compounds of ob, sub, and super, as obnoxius, obvius, subjectus, supplex, and superstes, are also followed by a dative of the object.
- (c.) After verbals in bilis, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibi crēdibilis sermo, A speech credible to you, i. e. worthy to be believed by you. Ovid.
- (d.) The expression dicto audiens, signifying obedient, is followed by the dative; as, Sỹrācūsāni nōbis dicto audientes sunt. Cic. Audiens dicto fuit jussis māgistrātuum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto is a dative limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to ôbēdiens, and, like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nec plebs nōbis dicto audiens atque òbēdiens sit. Liv. So dicto ôbēdiens; as, Fătūra es dicto ôbēdiens, annon, patri? Plaut.
- Rem. 2. (a.) The adjectives æquālis, affinis, ăliēnus, cognōminis, commūnis, contrarius, fidus, insučtus, par, dispar, pēcūliāris, proprius, propinquus, sácer, similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, sociais, vīcīnus, sūpentses, supplex, and some others, instead of a dative of the object, are sometimes followed by a genitive; as, Par hujus, Equal to him. Lucan. Proprium est Grātōris ornāte dicēre. Cic. But most of these words, when thus used, seem rather to be taken substantively; as, Æquālis ejus, His contemporary. Cic.
- (b.) Similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, par and dispar, take the genitive, when an internal resemblance, or a resemblance in character or disposition, is to be expressed, and hence we always find mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, similis; as, Plūres rēges Romūli quam Nūmæ similes. Liv.
- (c.) Amīcus, mimīcus, and fāmīliāris, owing to their character as substantives, take a genitive even in the superlative; as, Hōmo āmīcisāmus nostrūrum hōmīnum,—very friendly to our countrymen. Cic. On the other hand, hostis, though a substantive, is sometimes used like an adjective, being modified by

an adverb, and taking an object in the dative; as, Exspectantibus omnibus quisnam esset tam impius, tam dēmens, tam diis hominibus que hostis, qui, etc. Cf. § 277, R. 1.

- REM. 3. Some adjectives with the dative are followed by another case denoting a different relation; as, *Mens sibi conscia* recti, A mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Virg. See § 213, R. 7.
- REM. 4. Many adjectives, instead of the dative of the object, are often followed by an accusative with a preposition.
- (1.) Adjectives signifying useful, fit, and the opposite, take an accusative of the thing with ad, but only a dative of the person; as, Hŏmo ad nullam rem ūtīlis. Cic. Lŏcus aptus ad insīdias. Id.
- (2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with ad more frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad pœnas, ad præmia vēlox, Ovid; Ad āliquem morbum prōclivior, Cic.; Ad omne făcinus părâtus, Id.; Prōnus ad fidem, Liv.;—sometimes with in; as, Ciler in pugnam. Sil.
- (3.) Many adjectives, signifying an affection of the mind, may have an accusative of the object with in, erga, or adversus, instead of the dative; as, Fidelis in filios. Just. Māter ǎcerba in suos partus. Ovid. Grātus erga me. Cic. Grātum adversus te. Id. So Dissimilis in dominum. Tac.
- (4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, etc., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se similes. Cic. Heec sunt inter eos communia. Id. Inter se diversi. Id.
- Rem. 5. Propior and proximus, instead of the dative, have sometimes, like their primitive prope, an accusative; as, Quod vitium propius virtūtem èrat. Sall. P. Crassus proximus māre Oceanum hiēmārat. Cæs. Ager, qui proximus finem Měgălópölüärum est. Liv. Cf. § 238, 1.
- REM. 6. (a.) Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commānis, consentâneus, discors, with cum; as, Quem pārem cum lībēris fēcisti. Sall. Consentâneum cum iis lītēris. Cic. Cīvītas sēcum discors. Liv. So āliēnus and diversus with a or ab; as, Aliēnus a me, Ter.; A rātiōne dīversus, Cic.; or without a preposition; as, Aliēnum nostrā āmicitīa. Id.—(b.) Frētus, which regularly takes the ablative, is in Livy construed with the dative; as, fortūnæ frētus; nulli rei frētus, etc. Cf. § 244.—(c.) The participial adjectives junctus and conjunctus, instead of the dative, take sometimes the ablative either with or without cum.
- Rem. 7. Idem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets; as, $J\bar{u}p\bar{u}ter$ omnibus $\bar{u}dem$. Virg. Invitum qui servat, $\bar{u}dem$ făcit occidenti. Hor. In the first example, omnibus is a dative of the object; in the second, the dative follows $\bar{u}dem$, in imitation of the Greek construction with $a\bar{u}\tau \delta t$, and is equivalent to quod occidens, or quod făcit is, qui occidit. Similis is construed in the same manner in Hor. Sat. 1, 3, 122. Idem is generally followed not by a case, but by qui, ac, atque, ut, quăsi, or quam; sometimes by the preposition cum. Cf. § 207, R. 27, (d.) Similis and par are sometimes, like $\bar{u}dem$, followed by ac and atque.
- Rem. 8. Some verbal substantives are followed by the dative, when derived from verbs governing the dative; as, Justitia est obtempératio scriptis lègibus institutisque populorum. Cic. Traditio alicujus rei altèri. Id. Exprobratio cuiquam vétéris fortance. Liv.
- Note. A dative of the object often follows esse and other verbs, in connection with a predicate nominative or accusative, but such dative is dependent, not on the noun, but on the verb. Cf. § 227, R. 4.

DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 223. A noun limiting the meaning of a verb, is put in the dative, to denote the *object to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done: as.

Mea domus tibi pătet, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optāre locum tecto, A part choose a site for a building. Virg. Tibi sēris, tibi mētis, You sow for yourself, you reap for yourself. Plaut. Līcet nēmīni contra patriam dūcēre exercitum, It is not lawful for any one to lead an army against his country. Cic. Hoe tibi promito, I promise you this. Id. Herrel lātēri lētālis ārundo. Virg. Surdo fābūlam narras. Hor. Mīhi responsum dēdit. Virg. Sic vos non võbis fertis ārātra, böres. Id. Omnībus bonis expēdit salvam esse rempūblicam. Cic. Aptat hābendo ensem. Virg.

Note. The dative is thus used after all verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, personal or impersonal, and in both voices, provided their signification admits a reference to a remoter object, for whom or to whose benefit or injury any thing is done. In the passive voice, from their nature, neuter verbs can only be so construed impersonally. Cf. § 142, 1, and § 222, 2.

REMARK 1. The dative after many verbs is rendered not by to or for, but by other prepositions, or without a preposition. Many intransitive Latin verbs are translated into English by verbs transitive, and the dative after them is usually rendered like the object of a transitive verb.—Most verbs after which the signs to and for are not used with the dative, are enumerated in this and the following sections.

REM. 2. Many verbs signifying to favor, please, trust, assist, and their contraries, also to command, obey, serve, resist, threaten, and be angry, take a dative of the object.

Note. The neuter verbs comprehended in this rule generally express in the verbal form the meaning of those adjectives, which are followed by the dative, (cf. § 222, R. 1,) Thus, (a.) Illa tibi fåret, She favors you, or is favorable to you. Ovid. Mihi placebat Pompōnius, minime displicebat. Cic. Qui sibi fīdit. Hor. Non licet sui commodi causa mocere alteri. Cic. Non invidetur illi setati sed etiam favetur. Id. Desprat săluti sux. Id. Nêque mihi vestra decrêta auxiliantur. Sall. Impērat aut servit collecta pēcūnia cuique. Hor. Obēdīre et pārēre võluntāti. Cic. Quôniam factioni mimūcorum resistère nēquīvērit. Sall. Mihi minādātur. Cic. Irasci inimīcis. Cæs.

- (b.) So Adūlor, assentior, blandior, commōdo, fáveo, grātificor, grātor, grātūlor, and its verbal grātūlābundus, ignosco, indugeo, lēnōtīnor, pudpor, parco, plaudo, respondeo, stūdeo, suppārstītor; amūlor, incommōdo, invideo, nōceo, obsum, officio;—arrideo, pláceo; displiceo;—crādo, fīdo, confīdo; despēro, diffido;—adminīcilor, auxilior, mēdeor, mādror, pritūlor, patrocinor, prosum, subvēnio, succurro; dēsum, insūlior;—impēro, mando, mōdēror, praecipio, tempēro; ausculto, morīgēror, obēdio, obšēcundo, obsequor, obtempēro, pāreo, dicto audiens sum;—aucultor, familor, mīnistro, servio, inservio, præstōlor;—adversor, refrāgor, obsto, obtrecto, reluctor, rēnītor, rēpnigno, rēsisto, and, chiefly in the poets, bello, certo, luctor, pugno;—minor, commīnor, interminor;—broscor, succenseo, stōmāchor.—To these may be added equo, ādaquo, convīcior, dēgēnēro, excello, nūbo, suppēdīto, prævārīcor, rētīpio (to promise), rēnuncio, sudeo, persuādeo, dissūdado, supplēco, vaco, videor, and sometimes miseco and lāteo:—also the impersonals accīdit, convēnit, condūcit, contingit, dēcet, dölet, expēdīt. Keet, tībet, or lībet, tīpute, plācet, etc.—(c.) Intransitive verbs goverening a dative are often used impersonally in the passive with the same case; as, mīni invidētur, I am envied. Mīni malērdictur, I am revied. Mīni parettur, I am spared. Hor. Hoc persuādētur mīni, I am persuāded of this.
- (1,) (a.) Many of the above verbs, which, as intransitive, take the dative, sometimes become transitive and are followed by an accusative; as, ådūlor, ausculto, blandior, dēgēnēro, despēro, indulgeo, lāteo, mēdeor, mēdīcor, modēror, obtrecto, præstōlor, prōvideo, etc.; as, Adūlāri ālīquem. Cic. Hanc cáve dēgēnēres. Ovid. Indulgeo me. Ter. Hujus adventum præstōlans. Cæs. Prōvidere rem frāmentāriam. Id.—Sometimes also by a preposition and the ablative or accusative; as, A Stōlcis dēgēnērāvit Pāmætius. Cic. De rēpūblīcā despērāre. Id. Obtrectārunt inter se. Nep.—or by a dependent clause; as, Quæ despērat tractāta nītescēre posse, rēlinquit. Hor.

- (b.) Others, as transitive verbs, have, with the dative, an accusative, expressed or understood; as, impero, mando, ministro, minor, comminor, interminor, præcipio, rècipio, rènuncio, etc.; as, Equites imperat civitatibus; where cogendos is perhaps to be supplied, He enjoins upon the states the providing of cavalry. Cæs. See § 274, R. 5. Ministräre victum álicui. Varr. Deflagrationem urbi et Itáliæ toti minabatur. Cic.
- (c.) Equo and ădæquo are construed with the accusative and either the dative or cum with the ablative.—Invideo takes either a single dative of the person or thing, a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; as, Nonzero mihi invident. Hor.; or, when invidere is used in the sense of pricare, a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, Non inviderunt laude sua müliëribus. Liv. In Horace, by a Greek construction, the genitive is once used instead of the accusative or ablative of the thing; as, Neque ille sepositi ciceris nec longe invidet dveine.
- (d.) Cëdo, used transitively, takes a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; but sometimes the thing is expressed by the ablative; as, cēdēre ălicui possessione hortorum. So, also, concēdo tibi locum, or concēdo tibi loco.
- (2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as transitive verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, delecto, jūvo, adjūvo, adjūto, leulo, offendo, etc.—Jūbeo is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes by the accusative alone, or the dative with the infinitive or subjunctive; as, Jūbeo te bēne spērāre. Cic. Lex jūbet ea quæ fácienda sunt. Id. Uli Britannico jussit exsurgêre. Tac. Quibus jussērat, ut instantībus rēsistērent. Id.—Fīdo and confīdo are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fīdēre cursu. Ovid. Cf. § 245.
- § 224. Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepositions, $\ddot{a}d$, ant \ddot{e} , \ddot{c} on, $\ddot{i}n$, $\dot{i}nt\ddot{e}r$, $\ddot{o}b$, post, prae, pro, $s\ddot{u}b$, and $s\ddot{u}p\ddot{e}r$, are followed by the dative; as,

Annue cœptis, Be favorable to our undertakings. Virg. Rōmānis ĕquǐtībus lītēræ affĕruntur, Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antēcellēre omnībus, To excel all. Id. Antētulti Tiræ rētīgiōnem. Nep. Audetque viris concurrère virgo. Virg. Exercītum exercītui, dáces dūcībus compārāre. Liv. Immīnet his cēr. Ovid. Pēcōri signum inpressit. Virg. Nox prælio intervēnit. Liv. Interdixit histriōnībus scēnam. Suet. Meis commòdis officis et obstas. Cic. Cum se hostium tēlis objēcissent. Id. Poshābui mea sēriu lūdo. Virg. Certāmini præsēdit. Suet. Hībernis Labiēnum præpōsuit. Cæs. Gēnībus prōcumbēre. Ovid. Mīsēris succurrēre disco. Virg. Iis subsidia submittēbat. Cæs. Timīdis sāpervēnit Ægle. Virg.

- Note 1. This rule implies that the compound retains the meaning of the preposition; and the dative following such compound is then used instead of the case governed by the preposition. When such compounds are transitive they have with the dative an accusative also, like other transitive verbs.
- Accēdo, accresco, accumbo, acquiesco, ādēgatto, adhæreo, adjāceo, adno, adrāto, adsto, adstipūlor, adstum, adversor, affulgeo, allābor, allūdo, annuo, appāreo, applaudo, approprinquo, arrēpo, arrīdeo, aspiro, assentior, assīdeo, assisto, assuesco, assuesco assuesco, addubeo, adjīcio, adjīcio, adjūngo, admõveo, adverto, advolvo, affēro, affīgo, allīgo, appōno, applico, aspergo.
- 2. Antěcědo, antěcello, anteeo, antesto, antěvěnio, antěverto;—antěfěro, antěhábeo, untěpôno.
- C\(\tilde{b}\)hereo, coll\(\tilde{u}\)do, concino, congruo, consentio, cons\(\tilde{v}\)on, consuesco, convivo, and, ehielly in the poets, co\(\tilde{c}\), concumbo, concurro, contendo;—conf\(\tilde{c}\)ro, conjungo, comp\(\tilde{a}\)ro, comp\(\tilde{o}\)no.
- 4. Incido, incubo, incumbo, indormio, ingëmisco, inhæreo, inhio, innascor, innitor, insido, insido, insido, insulto, invado, invegilo, illacimo, illado, inmineo, imminor, immoror, impendeo, insum :—immiscoe, impertio, impono, imprimo, incido, incido, incido, indido, infero, ingero, injicio, insero, inspergo, insuesco, inúro.
- 5. Intercēdo, intercido, interclūdo, interjāceo, intermīco, intersum, intercēnio;—interdīco, interjīcio, interpōno.

- Obambillo, öberno, öbequito, obluctor, obmurnitro, obrēpo, obsto, obsisto, obstrēpo, obsum, obtreto, obvēnio, obversor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, officio;—obduco, objicio, offero, offundo, oppono.
 - 7 Postfero, posthabeo, postpono, postputo, postscribo.
- 8. Præcēdo, præcurro, præeo, prælūceo, prænineo, præniteo, præsideo, præsum, præveleo, prævertor; -- præféro, præficio, præpēno.
 - 9. Procumbo, proficio, propugno, prospicio, provideo.
- 10. Succēdo, succresco, succumbo, succurro, sufficio, suffragor, subbileo, subjaceo, subrēpo, subvenio;—subdo, subjūcio, subjūgo, submitto, suppūno, substerno.
 - 11. Supercurro, supersto, supersum, supervenio, supervivo.
- NOTE 2. In some verbs compounded with prepositions the meaning of the preposition is lost. Such compounds are either not followed by a dative, or the case depends, not on the preposition, but on the signification of the verb, according to § 223.
- REMARK 1. (a.) Some verbs, compounded with \(\text{id} b, \) \(\text{de} e, \) ex, circum, and contr\(\text{id} \), are occasionally followed by the dative; as, absum, desum, delabor, despero, excido, circum\(b, \) aroundo, circum\(\text{jaideo}, \) circum\(\text{jaideo}, \) contradico, contradico, contradico, as, Serta c\(\text{aipiti} \) d\(\text{elopsa}, \) The garlands having fallen from his head. Virg. Numqu\(\text{imition} \) nummi excid\(\text{errunt} \) tibi \(\text{desperans}. \) Ces.—(b.) Circumdo and circum\(\text{fundo} \) take either an accusative of the thing with a dative of the person, or an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person; as, circumdo \(\text{dici} \) circumdo \(\text{dici} \) circumdo \(\text{diffunce} \) custodics. Aspergo, inspergo, \(\text{dono} \) in pertio, exuo, and \(\text{induo}, \) are construed in the same manner. Cf. \(\xi \) 251, R. 2.
- Rem. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of āb, āc, or ex), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, ābīgo, abrēgo, abscindo, auféro, ădimo, area, dēfendo, dēmo, dēpello, dērōgo, dētrāho, ēripio, ēruo, exaŭto, eximo, extorqueo, extrâho, exvo, prohibeo, surripio. Thus, Nec mihi te ēripient, Nor shall they take you from me. Ovid. Solstitum pēcŏri dēfendīte. Virg. Hanc arcēbis pēcŏri. Id. So rarely abrumpo, ālieno, fūror, and rāpio.
- REM. 3. Some verbs of differing (compounds of $d\bar{\imath}$ or $d\bar{\imath}$) likewise occur with the dative, instead of the ablative with the preposition $d\bar{\imath}$, or poetically with the ablative alone; as, diff ero, discrepo, discordo, dissentio, dissideo, dist; as, Quantum simplex kilūrisque nepoti discrepet, et quantum discordet, parcus avaro. Hor. Distābit infido scurræ āmīcus. Hor. Græcis Tuscānīcæ stātuæ differunt. Quint. Cōnædia differt sermōni. Hor. So likewise misceo; as, Mista modestiæ gravītas. Cic.
- REM. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, especially with ad, con, and in, instead of the dative, either constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is frequently repeated. Sometimes, also, a preposition of similar signification is used; as, Ad primam vocem timidas advertitis aures. Ovid. Nemo eum antécessit. Nep. Saxa vides solà coàlescère calce. Lucr. Inférunt omnia in ignem. Cass. Silex incumbébat ad amnem. Virg. Innicus modéramine navis. Ovid. In Pansam fratrem innicus. Plin. Conferte hane pâcem cum illo bello. Cic. In this substitution of one preposition for another, ad is used for in, and in for ad; ab for ex; ad, anté, contra, and in, for ob; ad and anté, for pro.
- Rem. 5. Neuter verbs of motion or of rest in a place, when compounded with the prepositions, åd, antě, côn, în, etc., either take the dative, or, acquiring an active signification, are followed by the accusative; as, Helvětii rěliquos Gallos virtūte præcēdunt, The Helvetii surpass the other Gauls in valor. Cæs. Uterque, Isocratem ætūte præcurrit. Cic. So præeo, præsto, præverto, præcello. See § 233, (3.)
- § 225. I. Verbs compounded with sătis, bĕne, and măle, are followed by the dative; as,

Et nature et legibus sătisfecit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Tibi dii běněf aciant omnes, May all the gods bless you. Plaut. But also, Amicum erga bene feci. Id. Maledicit utrique. Hor. So sătisdo, benedico, malef acio.

Note. These compounds are often written separately; and the dative always depends not on sătis. bēne, and male, but on the simple verb. So, also, bēne and male alteui vīlo; as, Tibi bēne cz ānimo võlo. Ter. Ilii ēgo ex omnībus optime võlo. Plaut. Nors sībi māle vult. Petron. In like manner valēre dīco, and vale dīco; as, Augustus discēdens (e cūriā) sēdentībus singūlis vālēre dīcēbat. Suet. Tibi vālēdīcēre non līcet grātis. Sen. In late writers benedico and maledico sometimes take the accusative.

II. Verbs in the passive voice are sometimes followed by a dative of the agent, chiefly in the poets and the later prose writers; as, Quidquid in hac causā mhi susceptum est. Cic. Neque cernitur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nulla tuārum audīta mini neque vīsa sörörum. Id. Barbārus hīc ēgo sum, quia non intelligor ulli. Ovid. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with a or ab. See § 248, I.

III. The participle in dus is followed by a dative of the agent;

Unda omnibus ēnāviganda, The wave over which (we) all must pass. Hor. Nöbis, cum semel occidit brevis lux, Nox est perpetua una dormienda. Catull. Adhibenda est nöbis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestigia summõrum hominum sibi tuenda esse dīcit. Id. Si vis me flēre, dolendum est prīmum ipsi tibi. Hor. Făciendum mihi pătāri, ut responderem. Id.

REMARK 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano. Juv. Hic vincendum aut moriendum, mīlites, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, vobis, nobis, hominibus, etc., may be supplied. Cf. § 141, R. 2.

REM. 2. The participle in dus sometimes, though rarely, has, instead of the dative of the agent, an ablative with ā or ăb; as, Non eos in deorum immortalium número vénerandos a vobis et cólendos pútatos? Cic. Hæc a me in dicendo prætereunda non sunt. Id.—The dative after participles in dus is by some referred to § 226.

IV. Verbs signifying motion or tendency are followed by an accusative with ad or in; as,

Ad templum Palladis ībant. Virg. Ad prætorem hominem traxit. Cic. Vergu

ad septemtriones. Cæs. In conspectum réntre. Nep.
So curro, daco, féro, festino, fágio, inclino, légo, mitto, pergo, porto, præcipto, pròpèro, tendo, tollo, vado, verto.

REMARK 1. So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, etc.; as, Eurum ad se vocat. Virg. Provocasse ad pugnam. Cic. So animo, hortor, incito, invito, lacesso, stimulo, suscito; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and

REM. 2. But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clāmor it cœlo. Virg. Dam tibi litëræ meæ vëniant. Cic. Gregem viridi compellere hibisco. Virg. Sēdibus hunc refer ante suis. Id. After venio-both constructions are used at the same time; as, Vēnit mihi in mentem. Cic. Vēnit mihi in suspicionem. Nep. Eum vēnisse Germānis in amīcītiam cognoverat. Cæs. Propinquo (to approach) takes the dative only.

REM. 3. Sometimes also verbs signifying motion are followed by an accusative of place without a preposition, a supine in um, an infinitive, or an adverb of place; as, Rönnan profectus est. Ite dömum. Rus bbum. Lavnia $v\bar{v}nit$ Iftora. Virg. Néque ego te derisum $v\bar{e}niv$. Plaut. Non nos Libýcos pôpůlāre pěnātes $v\bar{e}nimus$. Virg. Huc $v\bar{e}nit$. Plaut. See §§ 237, 276, II. 271, N. 2.

Rem. 4. After do, scrībo, or mitto literas, the person for whom they are written or to whom they are sent, is put either in the dative or in the accusative with ad; as, Ex εο loco tibi literas ante dederāmus. Cic. Vulturcius literas stbi

ad Catilinam dătas esse, dicēbat. Id. Cesar scribit Labieno cum, etc. Cæs. Ad me Cărius de te scripsit. Cic. But to give one a letter to deliver is also expressed by dăre literas âlicui, and also the delivery of the letter by the bearer.

§ **226.** Est is followed by a dative denoting a possessor;—the thing possessed being the subject of the verb.

Est thus used may generally be translated by the verb to have with the dative as its subject; as, Est mini dimi păter, I have a father at home. Virg. Sunt nobis mitia pōma, We have mellow apples. Id. Grātiā nobis ōms est tuā, We have need of your favor. Cic. Innocentiæ plus pēricāli quam konoris est. Sall. An nescis longas regibus esse mānus? Ovid. So with an infinitive as the subject, Nec tibi sit dūros ūcuisse in prælia dentes. Tib. 4, 3, 3. The first and second persons of sum are not thus construed.

REMARK 1. Hence mihi est nömen signifies, I have the name, my name is, or I am called. The proper name is put either in the nominative, the dative, or the genitive. See § 204, R. 8. So also cognömen, cognömentum, and, in Tacitus, võcābūlum, est mihi.—Sometimes, also, a possessive adjective agreeing with nömen, etc., supplies the place of the proper name; as, Est mihi nömen Tarquinium. Gell. Mercūriāle impösuēre mihi cognōmen. Hor.

Rem. 2. The dative is used with a similar signification after före, suppětit, àbest, deest, and dēfit; as, Pauper ėnim non est, cui rêrum suppětit ūsus. Hor. Si mihi cauda föret, cercöpíthècus èram. Mart. Dēfuit ars vôbis. Ovid. Non dēfir srasaddis virtūtem. Tac. Lac mihi non dēfit. Virg. Hoc ūnum illi abfuit. Cic.

REM. 3. With the dative of the person after est Sallust and Tacitus sometimes join, by a Greek idiom, võlens, căpiens, and invitus; as, Quia neque plēbi militia võlenti (esse) pitäbädur, Because the common people were not thought to like the war. Sall. Ul quibusque bellum invitis aut căpientibus erat, According as each liked or disliked the war. Tac.

DATIVE OF THE END OR PURPOSE.

§ 227. Sum, and several other verbs, are followed by two datives, one of which denotes the *object to which*, the other the end for which, any thing is, or is done; as,

Mhi maxinæ est cūræ, It is a very great care to me. Cic. Spēro nöbis hanc conjunctionem völuptāti fore, I hope this union will afford us pleasure. Id. Mātri puellam dono dēdit. Ter. Fābio laudi dătum est. Cic. Vītio id tībi vertunt. Plaut. Id tībi hönori hābētur. Cic. Mātūrārit collēgæ věnīre auxīlio. Liv. Cui bono fuit? To whom was it an advantage? Cic.

REMARK 1. The verbs after which two datives occur, are sum, fore, fio, do, dono, dūco, habeo, rělinquo, tribuo, verto; also curro, eo, mitto, proficiscor, věnio, appono, assigno, cêdo, comparo, pateo, suppědito, emo, and some others.

REM. 2. The dative of the end or purpose is often used after these verbs, without the dative of the object; as,

Exemplo est formīca, The ant is (serves for) an example. Hor. Absentium binu dīvīsui fuēre. Liv. Rēlīquit pignōri pitāmīna. Plaut. Quæ ēsui et potui sunt. Gell. Esse dērīsui, To be a subject of ridicule. Tac. Rēceptui cānēre, To sound a retreat. Cæs. Alīquid dōti dīcāre, To set out as dowry. Cic.

REM. 3. (a.) The verb sum, with a dative of the end, may be variously rendered; as by the words brings, affords, serves, does, etc. The sign for is often omitted with this dative, especially after sum; instead of it, as, or some other particle, may at times be used; as,

Ignāvia ĕrit tībi magno dēdēcŏri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you. Cic. Hac res est argumento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. Hoc vītio mihi dant, This they set down as a fault in me. Universos cūræ hābuit. Suet. Una res ĕrat magno ūsui. was of great use. Lucil. Quod tībi magnöpĕre cordi est, mihi vēhēmenter displicet, What is a great pleasure, an object of peculiar interest to you, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the words fit, able, ready, etc., must be supplied, especially before a gerund or a gerundive; as, Quum solvendo civitātes non essent, ... not able to pay. Cic. Divites, qui öneri ferendo essent. Liv. Quæ restinguendo igni forent. Liv. Rādīx ejus est vescendo. Plin.

REM. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a predicate nominative or accusative is sometimes used; as, $N\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ tu illi pater es, By nature you are his father. Amor est exitium $p\bar{e}c\bar{o}ri$: or the purpose is expressed by the accusative with ad or in; as, Alicui comes est ad belium. Cic. Se $R\bar{e}mis$ in clientelam dicabant. Cas.: or by the ablative with pro; as, Innocentia pro malivolentia dūci capit. Sall. Alcibus sunt arbores pro cublibus. Cas.

REM. 5. Instead, also, of the dative of the end or purpose, quo? to what end? for what purpose? why? sometimes occurs, with an accusative, which generally depends on a verb understood, or with an infinitive or a clause; as, Quo mihi fortūnam, si non concēditur ūti? Hor. Quo tibi, Pasiphaē, prētiōsas sūmēre vestes? Ovid.

REM. 6. After do and other similar active verbs an accusative of the purpose is found in apposition; as, Lătini cŏrōnam auream Jŏri dōnum in Cāpitolium mittunt. Liv. Alicui cŏmĭtem esse dătum. Cic. Cf. § 204, R.1; and § 230, R.2.

Note. The dative, instead of the accusative, is sometimes used after the infinitive, when a dative precedes, and the subject of the infinitive is omitted; as, Võbis něcesse est fortibus esse víris. Liv. Maximo tibi et cīvi et dŭci ēvāděre contigit. Val. Max. See §§ 205, R. 6, and 239, R. 1.

DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§ 228. Some particles are followed by the dative of the object; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as,

Propius Tibèri quam Thermopylis. Nep. Proxime castris, Very near to the camp. Cass. Propius stäbūlis armenta těněrent. Virg. Congruenter natūræ, convenienterque vīvěre, Agreeably to nature. Cic. Epicūrus quam sībi constanter convenienterque dīcat, non lubōrat. Id. Nēnīni nimium bēne est. Afran. Mīhi numquam in vītā fuit mēlius. Hor. Vīvēre vītæ höminum āmīce. Cic. Bēne mīhi, bēne vobis. Plaut. So, Mīhi obviam vēnisti. Cic. In certāmina sævo comminus īre vīro. Sīl. Quæstōres provinciæ mīhi præsto fuērunt. Cic. Sāmos est exadversum Mīlēto. App.

REMARK. Propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are sometimes construed with a and the ablative; as, Prope a meis ædibus. Cic. Stellæ errantes propius a terris. Id. A Surā proxime est Philiscum, oppidum Parthōrum. Plin.

2. Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers; as, *Mihi clam est*, It is unknown to me. Plant. *Contra nobis*. Id. But in such instances they seem rather to be used like adjectives.

3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mihi! Ah me! Virg. Væ mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Væ victis esse! Liv. Væ misero mihi. Plaut. Hem tibi. Id. Ecce tibi. Cic.

Note. (a.) The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes nearly redundant, but it always conveys the expression of a lively feeling, and is therefore termed dativus ēthicus; as,

Fur mihi cs, in my opinion. Plaut. An ille mihi liber, cui mülier impërat? Cic. Tongilium mihi eduxit. Id. Ubi nunc nöbis deus ille mägister? Virg. Ecce tibi Sebōsus! Cic. Hem tibi tälentum argenti! Philippicum est. Plant. Sibi is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suus; as, Suo sibi glādio hunc jūgūlo. Plaut. Ignōrans suo sībi servit patri. Id. Sībi suo tempōre.

(b.) The following phrases also occur with völo and a reflexive pronoun: quid tībi vis? what do you want? quid sībi iste vult? what does he want? quid vult sībi hæc ōrātio? what does this speech mean? quid hæc sībi dōna vŏlunt? what is the meaning of these presents? or what is their object?

what is the meaning of these presents? or, what is their object?

ACCUSATIVE.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 229. The object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative; as,

Lēgātos mittunt, They send ambassadors. Cæs. Anīmus mövet corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da veniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum imitāti sunt, They imitated him. Cic. Piscem Sýri věněrantur. Id.

REMARK 1. A transitive verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional relation; as,

Te convinco amentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da lócum mělioribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se Teucria luctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.

REM. 2. Such is the difference of idiom between the Latin and English languages, that many verbs considered transitive in one, are used as intransitive in the other. Hence, in translating transitive Latin verbs, a preposition must often be supplied in English; as, Ut me caveret, That he should beware of me. Cic. On the other hand, many verbs, which in Latin are intransitive, and do not take an accusative, are rendered into English by transitive verbs; as, Ille mihi favet, He favors me: and many verbs originally intransitive acquire a transitive signification.

Rem. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted:—

- 1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum senātus, quem (scil. dare) vidēbitur, dăbit. Liv.
- 2. The interrogative interjection quid? what? depends on ais or censes. So 2. The interrogative interjection quas what? depends on as or censes. So also quid vēro? quid igitur? quid ergo? quid enim? which are always followed by another question, and both questions may be united into one proposition, the first serving merely to introduce the interrogation. With quid postea? quid tum? supply sequitur. With quid quod, occurring in transitions, dicam de eo is omitted, but it may be rendered 'nay,' 'nay even,' 'but now,' 'moreover,' etc., without an interrogation.—Dicam is also to be supplied with quid multa? quid plara? ne multa; ne multis; ne plara. The infinitive dicere is also sometimes omitted; as, Nimis multa videor de me. Cic. Perge reliqua. Id.

Rem. 4. The accusative is often omitted:

1. When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Nox pracipitat, seil. se. Virg. Tum prora avertit. Id. Eo lavatum, scil. me. Hor.

The reflexives are usually wanting after aboleo, abstineo, accingo, adaquo, aquo, agglomero, augeo, eclero, congémino, continuo, decino, descino, desino, difero, diro, grimpo, flecto, deflecto, facesso, incipio, inclino, instinuo, irrumpo, jungo, lavo, laxo, lenio, maturo, molio, moveo, moto, pino, procipio, prorumpo, quato, remitto, retracto, sedo, sisto, stabilo, suppedito, tardo, têneo, tendo, traficio, transmitto, turbo, vario, vergo, verto, deverto, reverto, vestio, vibro; and more rarely after many others.

2. When it is something indefinite, has been previously expressed in any case, or is easily supplied; as, Ego, ad quos scribam, nescio, scil. literas. Cic. De quo et tecun egi diligenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Bene fecit Silius. Id. Dücit in hostem, scil. exercitum. Liv.

REM. 5. An infinitive, or one or more substantive clauses, may supply the place of the accusative after an active verb; as,

Da mihi fallère. Hor. Reddes dulce lŏqui, reddes rīdēre dĕcōrum. Id. Căpio me esse clēmentem. Cic. Alhēmienses stātuērunt ut nāves conscendērent. Id. Vēreor ne a doctis rēprēhendar. Id.Euœ, Bacche, sōnat. Ovid. Sometimes both constructions are united; as, Di īram misērantur inānem ambōrum, et tantos mortālībus esse lābōres. Virg.—Respecting the infinitive with and without a subject-accusative after an active verb, see § 270–273; and for the subjunctive after such verbs, see § 273.

- (a.) In such constructions, the subject of the dependent clause is sometimes put in the accusative as the object of the leading verb; as, Nosti Marcellum, quam tavdus sit, for Nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cic. Illum, ut vīvat, optant. Ter. At te ego fáciam, ut mīnus vāleas. Plaut.
- (b.) An ablative with de may also supply the place of the accusative, by the ellipsis of some general word denoting things, facts, etc., modified by such ablative; as, De républica vestrā paucis accipe. Sall. Compare a similar omission of a subject modified by de and the ablative, § 209, R. 3, (2.)
- REM. 6. The impersonal verbs of feeling, miseret, panitet, pidet, tadet, piget, miserescit, miseretur, and pertasum est, are followed by an accusative of the person exercising the feeling, and a genitive of the object in respect to which it is exercised. Cf. § 215, (1.); as,

Eōrum nos misĕret, We pity them. Cic. The impersonal Veritum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est veritum pōnĕre, etc. Cic.

Rem. 7. Jüvat, dēlectat, fallit, fŭgit, prætĕrit, and dĕcet, with their compounds, take an accusative of the person; as,

Te hilári ánimo esse valde me júvat, That you are in good spirits greatly delights me. Cic. Fügit me ad te scríbire. Cic. Illud altérum quam sit difficile, te non fügit. Id. Nec vero Cæsarem féfellit. Cæs. Fücis, út te décet. Ter. So also when used personally; as, Parvum parva décent. Hor.; but décet often takes the accusative of the person with the infinitive; as, Hinc māculum nos décet effügère. Ter.; and in comic writers a dative; as, Vöbis décet. Ter.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after refert and interest, see § 219, R. 1: and for the accusative by attraction, instead of the nominative, see § 206, (6,) (b.)

§ **230.** Verbs signifying to name or call; to choose, render or constitute; to esteem or reckon, which in the passive voice have two nominatives, are followed in the active voice by two accusatives, one of the *object* and the other of the *predicate*. Cf. § 210, R. 3, (3.); as,

Urbem ex Antiochi patris nomine Antiochiam võcavit, He called the city Antioch, etc. Just. Lūdos fácis me, You make game of me. Plaut. Me consulem fécistis. Cic. Iram bène Ennius initium divit insanive. Id. Ancum Marcium regem populus creavit. Liv. Sulpicium accūsatorem suum nămérābat, non compétitorem. Cic. Quum vos testes hābeam. Nep.

Note 1. The following are among the verbs included in this rule, viz. appello, dīco, nōmīno, nuncūpo, pērhībeo, salūto, scrībo and inscrībo, vŏco; cápio, constituo, creo, dēdcāro, dēlīgo, dēsigno, dīco, ēlīgo, facio, efficio, instituo, lēgo, prodo, reddo, rēnuncio; dūco, dignor, existīmo, habeo, jūdico, nūmēro, pūto, rēpērio, intellīgo, invēnio, se præbēre or præstāre, etc.

Note 2. An ablative with ex occurs, though rarely, instead of the accusative of the object; as, Fortūna me, qui līber fuĕram, servum fēcit, e summo infimum. Plaut. Cf. Qui recta prāva făciunt. Ter.

NOTE 3. An infinitive may supply the place of the objective accusative; as, Si simulasse vocat crimen. Ovid.:—and sometimes of the predicate accusative

also; as, Si reperīre vocas āmittere certius; aut si soīre ubi sit reperīre vocas. Id. So also an adjective may supply the place of the predicate accusative; as, Prabuit se dignum suis mājorībus. Cic. Casarem certiorem făciunt. Cæs.

REMARK 1. After verbs signifying to esteem or reekon, one of the accusatives is often the subject, and the other the predicate, of esse expressed or understood; as,

Eum ăvārum possūmus existimāre. Cic. Tālem se impērātōrem præbuit. Nep. Præsta te eum, qui mihi es cognītus. Cic. Mercūrium omnium inventōrem artium férunt; hunc viārum atque itinērum ducem arbitrantur. Cæs.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative; as, Ne me existimāris ad mānendum esse propensiorem. Cic.

Note 4. Instead of the predicate accusative, (1) pro with the ablative sometimes follows pūto, dāco, and hābeo, but denotes only an approximation; as, Aliguid pro certo hābēre or pūtāre. Ea pro falsis dācīt. Sall. Aliquem pro hoste hābēre. Cæs.—So also in with the ablative; as, Nihil præter virtūtem in bōnis hābēre. Cic. Aliquem in nūmēro hostium dūcēre. Cīc.—and the ablative without nī; as, Vīi vo safī nūum lōco dūcērem. Sall.—So also e or ex with the ablative; as, (Ut) fācēret quod e rēpūblicā fīdēque suā dācēret. Līv.—Sometimes (2) the genitive; as, Officii duzūt cxōrāre fīlūx patrem. Suet. (See § 211, R. 8, (3.) So with a genitive or an ablative of price or value; as, Pūtāre dūquem nīhīlo. Cic. Non hābeo nanci Mavsum augūrem. Enn—and sometimes (3) a dative; as, Quando tu me hābes despīcātui. Plaut.:—or an adverb; as, Egre hābuit, fīlūm id pro pārente ausum. Līv. And (4) ad or in with the accusative; as, Lōca ad hībernācūla lēgēre. Līv. Alīquem in Patres lēgēre. Id.: or (5) the genitive depending on the ablative of cause, manner, etc.; as, Qui servitūtem dēdītiōnis nōmīne appellant. Cæs.

REM. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, etc.

Such are do, tribuo, sūmo, pěto, pōno, adjungo, ascrībo, cognosco, accio, fingo, significo, etc.; as,

Quare ējus fügæ comitem me adjungērem. Cic. Hominum opinio socium me ascribit tuis laudibus. Id. Quos ēgo sim toties jam dēdignāta mūrītos. Virg. Hunc tgitur rēgem agnoscimus, qui Philippum dēdignātur patrem? Curt. Filiam tuam mihi uxorem posco. Plaut. Pētit hanc Sāturnia mūnus. Ovid. Such constructions may often be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.

§ **231.** Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and $c\bar{e}lo$ (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of the person, the other of the thing; as,

Hoc te rěhěmenter rôgo. Cic. Illud te ōro, ut, etc. Id. Rōgo te nummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos věniam, Ask favor of the gods. Virg. Quum lögent quis mūsicam dōcuĕrit Epāmīnondam, When they shall read who taught Epaminondas music. Nep. Antigōnus iter omnes cēlat, Antigonus conceals his route from all. Id. Dēprēcāri deos māla. Sen. Quōtidie Cæsar Æduos frūmentum flāgūtāre. Cæs. Multa deos ōrans. Virg.

REMARK 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, flagito, efflagito, obsero, ōro, exōro, contendo, percontor, posco, rēposco, consilo, prēcor, dēprēcor, rōgo, and interrōgo, which, with the accusative of the person, take the accusative of the neuter pronouns hoc, id, illud, quod, quid, more frequently than that of a substantive; of teaching, döceo, ēdōceo, dēdōceo, and ērūdio, which last has two accusatives only in the poets. Admōneo and consilo are rarely found with two accusatives; as, Consūlam hanc rem āmīcos. Plaut. Eam rem nos lōcus admōnuit. Sall.

REM. 2. Instead of the accusative of the person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with ab or ex; as, Non debebam abs te has kiteras poscére. Cie. Věniam ōrēmus ab ipso, Virg. Istud völébam ex te percontāri. Plaut.

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- Rem. 3. (a.) Instead of the accusative of the thing, the ablative with de is sometimes used; as, Sic ègo te eisdem de rebus interrógem. Cic. De Ithère hostium sénātum ēdōcet. Sall. Bassus noster me de hoc libro cēlāvit. Cic. Cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)—(b.) Sometimes also instead of the accusative of the thing an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause is used; as, Deos prēcāri debētis, ut urbem dēfendant. Cic. Üt dóceam Rullum posthac tāceīre. Id. Dōcui id non fièri posse. Id. Dōceant eum qui vir Sex. Roscius fteřit. Id.—(c.) With verbs of teaching, the instrument by means of which the art is practised is put in the ablative; as, Aliquem fidibus dōcēre. Cic. Dŏcēre āliquem armis. Liv. Lutēræ may be used either in the accusative or in the ablative; as, Te lītēras dŏceo. Cic. Doctus Græcis lītēris. Id.
- Rem. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, exigo, pēto, postulo, quero, scitor, sciscitor, which, with the accusative of the thing, take an ablative of the person with the preposition ab, de, or ex; imbuo, instituo, instruo, etc., which are sometimes used with the ablative of the thing, generally without a preposition, and are sometimes otherwise construed; as, Instituere aliquem ad dicendum. Cic.
- REM. 5. (a.) Many active verbs with the accusative of the person, take also an accusative denoting in what respect or to what degree the action of the verb is exerted.
- (b.) The accusative of degree, etc., is commonly nihil, a neuter pronoun, or a neuter adjective of quantity; as, Non quo me aliquid jūrāre posses. Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortātus. Sall. Id adjūta me. Ter. Neque est te fallēre quidquam. Virg. Cf. § 232, (3.)
- REM. 6. By a similar construction, gčnus and sēcus, 'sex,' are sometimes used in the accusative, instead of the genitive of quality; as, Nullas hoc gčnus vigitiarunt. Gell. So, Omnes muliebre sĕcus. Suet. Cf. 211, R. 6, (4.)
- § 232. (1.) Some *neuter* verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own; as,

Vītam jūcundam vīvēre, To live a pleasant life. Plaut. Mīrum somniāvi somnium, I have dreamed a wonderful dream. Id. Fūrēre hunc fūrērem. Virg. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plaut. Pugnāre dīcenda Mūsis prœlia. Hor. Lūsum insölentem lūdēre. Id. Si non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Quēror haud fāciles questus. Stat. Jūrāvi vērissīmum jusjūrandum. Cic. Ignōtas jūbet īre vias. Val. Flacc. So, also, Ire exsēquias, To go to a funeral. Ter. Ire suppētias, To go to cae's assistance. Ire infitias, To deny. This expression is equivalent to infitior, and may like that take an accusative; as, Si hoc ūnum adjunxēro, quod nēmo eat infitias. Nep.: or the accusative with the infinitive; as, Nēque infitias īmus Sīcīliam nostram prōvinciam esse. Liv. Ut suum gaudium gaudērēmus. Cœl. ad Cic. Prōficisci magnum iter. Cic. Pollux itque rēditque viam. Virg. This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective.

(2.) Verbs commonly neuter are sometimes used transitively, and are then followed by an accusative.

Accusatives are thus used with öleo and săpio, and their compounds, rědôleo, rěsipio; as, Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Olère peregrinum, To have a foreign smell. Clic. Orātiōnes rèdôlentes antiquitātem. Id. Mella herbam eam sāpiunt, The honey tastes of that herb. Plin. Uva picem rēsīpiens. Id. So, Sītio hōnores. Cic. Carnem pluit. Liv. Claudius āleam stādōsissime līsit. Suet. Erumpère diu coercitam īram in hostes. Liv. Libros ēvijāre. Ovid. Præīre verba. Liv. Nec vox hōmīnem sōnat. Virg. Sūdāre mella. Id. Mōrientem nōmine clāmat. Id. Quis post vīna grāvem mīlitiam aut paupēriem crēpat? Hor. Onnes ūna māmet nox. Id. Ingrāti ānimi crīmen horreo. Cic. Ego meas quēror fortūnas. Plaut. Vīvēre Bacchānālia. Juv. Pastōrem saltāret ūti Cyclōpa, rōgābat. Hor. So the passive; Nunc agrestem Cyclōpa mŏvētur. Id. Xerxes quum māre ambūlāvisset, terram nāvigasset. Cic. Qui stādium currit. Id. Cimmūnia jūra migrāre. Id. Te võlo collòqui. Plaut. Ea dissērēre mālui. Cic.

Cörydon ardēbat Alexin. Virg. Stygias jūrāvimus undas. Ovid. Nāvigat æquor. Virg. Currimus æquor. Id. Pascuntur sylvas. Id.

Note 1. Accusatives are found in like manner after ambülo, calleo, döleo, čquito, fleo, gaudeo, gemo, glorior, horreo, lator, latro, nato, palleo, paveo, pereo, depereo, procedo, queror, rideo, sileo, sibilo, táceo, tremo, trepido, vado, venio, etc.

(3.) Neuter verbs and sometimes adjectives also may be followed by an accusative denoting *in what respect*, or *to what degree*, the feeling, condition, etc., is manifested; as,

Nihil lăboro. Cic. Num id lacrimat virgo? Does the maid weep on that account? Ter. Multa ălia peccat. Cic. Quicquid deltrant rêges, plectuntur Achīvi. Hor. Nec tu id indignāri posses. Liv. Illud mihi lætandum video. Cic. Illud valde tībi assentior. Id. Idem glōriāri. Id. Hæc glōrians. Liv. Hoc stādet ūnum. Hor.—So, Id ŏpēram do, I strive for this. Ter. Consilium pētis, quid tībi sim auctor. Cic. Quod quīdam auctores sunt, Which is attested by some authors. Liv. Nil nostri misērēre? Virg.—Nihil Rōmānæ pēlēbis simlīs. Liv. Sēnātus nīhil sāne intentus. Sall. These limiting accusatives have commonly the force of adverbs, particularly nīhil, which is used like an emphatic non in the sense of 'in no way,' 'in no respect.' So non nīhil, 'to some extent,' in some measure.'

Note 2. In the above and similar examples, the prepositions ob, propter, per, ad, etc., may often be supplied. This construction of neuter verbs is most common with neuter accusatives id, quid, quid,quid,quid,quid,quid,quid,quid, nthil, nonnthil, tdem, illud, tantum, quantum, anum, multa, pauca, alia, cētēra, omnia, etc. Cf. § 256, R. 16, N.

- § 233. Many verbs are followed by an accusative depending upon a preposition with which they are compounded.
- (1.) Active verbs compounded with *trans*, *ad*, and *circum*, have sometimes two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition; as,

Omnem ĕquitātum pontem transdūcit, He leads all the cavalry over the bridge. Cæs. Agāsīlāus Hellespontum cöpias trājēcit. Nep. Petrēius jusjūrandum ādīgit Afrānium. Cæs. Roscillum Pompēius omnia sua præsīdia circumduwit. Id. So, Pontus scopūlos sūperjācit uudam. Virg. So, also, adverto and indūco with ānimum; as, Id ānimum advertit. Cæs. Id quod ānimum induxērat paulisper non tēnuit. Cic. So, also, injīcio in Plautus—Ego te mānum injīciam.

(2.) Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions; as,

Măgicas accingier artes, To prepare oneself for magic arts. Virg. In prose writers the ad is in such cases repeated; as, accingi ad consulatum. Liv. Classis circumwehitur arcem. Id. Quod anguis domi vectem circumjectus fuisset. Cic. Lŏcum prætervectus sum. Id.

(3.) Many neuter verbs, especially verbs of motion, or of rest in a place, when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusative, become transitive, and accordingly take an accusative; as,

Gentes que măre illud adjăcent, The nations which border upon that sea. Nep Obășuităre agmen. Curt. Incēdunt mastos locos. Tac. Transilui flammas. Ovid. Succēdēre tecta. Cic. Lūdōrum diēbus, qui cognitionem intervēnērant. Tac. Adire provinciam. Suet. Căveat ne proelium ineat. Cic. Ingrédi îter pědibus. Cic. Epicări horti quos modo prætěribāmus. Id.

Note. To this rule belong many of the compounds of ambulo, cēdo, curro, eo, ēquito fluo, grādior, lābor, no and nāto, rēpo, salio, scando, vādo, vēhor, vēnio, vēlo;—eūbo, jāceo, sēdeo, sisto, sto, etc., with the prepositions included in § 224, and with ex.

REMARK 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with prepositions which govern an ablative, in like manner become transitive, and are followed by an accusative; as,

Nëminem convêni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui sŏciëtātem coiëris. Id. Aversāri hönöres. Ovid. Ursi arbōrem āversi dērēpunt. Plin. Edormi crāpūlam. Cic. Egressus exsilium. Tac. Evāditque celler rīpam. Virg. Excēdêre nūmērum. Tac. Exire līmen. Ter. Tībur āquæ fertīle præfluunt. Hor.

REM. 2. After verbs both active and neuter, compounded with prepositions which take an accusative, the preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as,

Cæsar se ad nēmīnem adjunxit. Cic. Multitūdinem trans Rhēnum in Galliam transdūcēre. Cæs.—In Galliam invāsit Antōnius. Cic. Ad me ădīre quosdam mēmini. Id. Orātor pēragrat per ānimos hōmīnum. Id. Ne in sēnātum accēdērem. Id. Rēģina ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta gēnītōrem adstat Lāvinia. Id. Fines extra quos ēgrēdi non possim. Cic. A dative instead of the accusative often follows such compounds, according to § 224. Circum is not repeated.

Note. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in *bundus* are followed by an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived; as,

Quid tibi huc receptio ad te est meum virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plaut. Quid tibi, mālum, me, aut quid ego āgam, cūrādīst? Id. Quid tibi hanc ādītio est? Id. Quid tibi hanc mēto est, inquam, amīcam meam? Quid tibi hanc dīgīto tactio 'st? Id. Hanno vītābundus castra hostium consūlesque. Liv. Mīthrīdātes Rōmānum mēdītābundus bellum. Just. Mīrābundu vānam spēciem. Liv. Pŏpūlābundus agros. Sisenn. Carnīfīcem imāgīnābundus. App.

§ 234. A verb in the passive voice has the same government as in the active, except that the accusative of the active voice becomes the nominative of the passive.

Note 1. The accusative of the person with the infinitive, after verbs of saying and commanding, may become the subject of the passive voice; as, Active Dico regem esse justum:—Passive, Rex dictur justus esse. Act. Jübeo te redire;—Pass. Jüberis redire: the construction in the passive being the same as though regem and te had depended immediately upon dico and jübeo.—So, also, when the accusative of the person is the object of the verb and the infinitive stands as the accusative of the thing. Cf. § 270, N.

I. When a verb, which in the active voice takes an accusative both of the person and of the thing, is changed to the passive form, the accusative of the person becomes the nominative, and the accusative of the thing is retained; as,

Rógātus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrögātus causam. Tac. Sēgētes ālīmentāņue dēbīta dīves poscēbātur hūmus. Ovid. Mōtus döcēri gaudet Iōnīcos mātūra virgo. Hor. Omnes belli artes ēdoctus. Liv. Nosne hoc cēlātos tam diu? Ter. Multa in extis mūnēmur. Cic.

Note 2. The accusative of the thing after doctus and \$\bar{\ell}{e}doctus\$ is rare; and after \$c\bar{\ell}{e}d\bar{n}'\$ it is generally a neuter pronoun; as \$hoc or \$id\$ cellabar; of this I was kept in ignorance; but it is found also with the person in the dative; as, Id Aloibiādi diātius \$c\bar{\ell}{e}air\$ non \$p\hat{t}uit\$. Nep. Aloib. 5. \$C\bar{\ell}{e}lo\$, and especially its passive, generally takes \$de\$ with the ablative.

REMARK 1. (a.) Induo and exuo, though they do not take two accusatives in the active voice, are sometimes followed by an accusative of the thing in

the passive; as, *Induïtur ātras* vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thōrāca *indūtus*. Virg. *Exūta est Rōma* sĕnectam. Mart. So *indūcor* and *cingor*; as, Ferrum *cingītur*. Virg. So *rĕcingītur* anguem. Ovid.

(b.) When two accusatives follow an active verb compounded with trans, the passive retains that which depends upon the preposition; as, Belgæ Rhēnum

antiquitus transducti. Cæs.

REM. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa novis rebus quum sit ăgendum. Lucr. Quam (viam) nobis ingrediendum est. Cic.

II. Adjectives, verbs, and perfect participles, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the part to which their signification relates; as,

Nūdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os hǔmĕrosque deo similis. Id. Clāri gēnus. Tac. Tribīni suam vicem anxii. Liv. Trēmit artus. Virg. Cētēra parce puer bello. Id. Sībila colla tǔmentem. Id. Explēri mentem nēquit. Id. Grýneus ēruitur ŏculos. Ovid. Picti scūta Lābici. Virg. Collis frontem lēnīter fastīgātus. Cæs. Anīmum incensus. Liv. Oblītus fāciem suo cruōre. Tac.

REMARK 1. In this construction an ablative is often joined with the perfect participle; as, Miles fractus membra läböre. Hor. Dexterum genu läpide actus. Suet. Adversum femur trägülä gräviter ictus. Liv.

REM. 2. This is a Greek construction, and is usually called the limiting or Greek accusative. It is used instead of an ablative of limitation, (§ 250,) and occurs most frequently in poetry.

- REM. 3. A limiting accusative instead of the ablative is found also in a few ordinary expressions, as in partim (for partem), vicem, magnam and maximam partem, instead of magnā or maximā ex parte, or the adverb fere; as, Maximam partem lacte vivunt. Cass. Magnam partem ex iambis nostra constat oradio. Cic. Livy has magna pars, viz. Numidæ, magna pars agrestes.—So cētēra and reliqua are joined to adjectives in the sense of ceteris, 'for the rest,' 'in other respects'; as, Proximum regnum, cētēra egrégium, ab ūnā parte haud sătis prospērum fuit. Liv. So cētēra sīmīlis, cētēra būnus. A te bis terve summum litēras accēpi. Cic.—So, also, in the expressions id temporis; id, hoc or idem ætātis, illud horæ, for eo tempore, eā ætāte, etc.; id genus, omne genus, quod genus.
- III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the general rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vīvītur ætas. Ovid. Bellum mīlitābītur. Hor. Dormītur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Adītur Gnossius Mīnos. Sen. Ne ab omnībus circumsistērētur. Cæs. Hostes invādi posse. Sall. Campus öbītur ăquā. Ovid. Plūres īneuntur grātiæ. Cic. Ea res silētur. Id.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 235. (1.) Twenty-six prepositions are followed by the accusative.

These are ad, adversus or adversum, ante, apad, circa or circum, circiter, cis or citra, contrā, ergū, extrā, infrā, intēr, intrā, juxlā, vb, penes, per, post, pone, præter, propē, propter, secundum, suprā, trans, ultrā; as,

Ad templum non æquæ Palladis ibant,—to the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes. Against the enemy. Liv. Germani qui cis Rhēnum incolunt,—this side the Rhine. Cæs. Quum tantum resideat intra mūros măli. Cic. Principio rerum imperium pènes règes èrat. Just. Templum ponam propter àquam. Virg. Inter àgendum. Id. Ante domandum. Id. Respecting the signification of some of the preceding prepositions see § 195, R. 5, etc.

REMARK 1. Cis is generally used with names of places; citra with other words also; as, Cis Taurum. Cic. Cis Pādum. Liv. Paucos cis menses. Plaut. Citra Vēliam. Cic. Citra sătietātem, Not to satiety. Col. Citra fătīgātionem. Cels. Citra Trōjāna tempora. Ovid.

Rem. 2. Inter, signifying between, applies to two accusatives jointly, and sometimes to a single plural accusative; as, Inter me et Scipionem. Cic. Inter nātos et pārentes. Id. Inter nos, Among ourselves. Id. Inter falcārios, Among the scythe-makers. Cic. When it denotes time it signifies during, and more rarely at; as, Inter ipsum pugnæ tempus. Liv. Inter cænam. Cic.

REM. 3. Ante and post are commonly joined with concrete official titles, when used to indicate time, rather than with the corresponding abstract nouns; as, ante or post Ciceronem consulem, rather than ante or post consulatum Cheronis.

(2.) In and sub, denoting motion or tendency, are followed by the accusative; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via dūcit in urbem, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te amor. Cic. Callimāchi ēpigramma in Cleombrötum est—on or concerning Cleombrotus. Id. Exercitus sub jūgum missus est, The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Magna mei sub terras ībit imāgo. Virg. Mēdiā in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his fuit Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Iliācis mænībus gērēre, To wage war under the Trojan walls. Ovid. Sub nocte silenti. Virg.

Rem. 4. The most common significations of in, with the accusative, are, into, to, towards, until, for, against, about, concerning,—with the ablative, in, on, upon, among. In some instances, in and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the ablative, and, denoting situation, by the accusative; as, In conspectu meo audet vēnīre. Phæd. Nātiōnes guæ in amtertiam pōpāli Rōmāni, dttiōnemque essent. Id. Sub jūgo dictātor hostes mīsit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consēdisse. Cæs.

Rem. 5. In and sub, in different significations, denoting neither tendency nor situation, are followed sometimes by the accusative, and sometimes by the ablative; as, Amor crescit in horas. Ovid. Hostilem in modum. Cic. Quod in bono servo dici posset. Id. Sub eā conditione. Ter. Sub penā mortis. Suet.

REM. 6. In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative; as, Sub adventu Römänörum. Liv. Sub lüce. Ovid. Sub tempöre. Lucan. Denoting near, about, just before or just after, it takes the accusative; as, Sub lücem. Virg. Sub lümina prima. Hor. Sub hoc hērus inquit. Id.

Rem. 7. In is used with neuter adjectives in the accusative in forming adverbial phrases; as, In universum, In general. In totum, Wholly. So, in plenum; in incertum; in tantum; in quantum; in majus; in melius; in omnia, in all respects, etc.

(3.) Sǔpĕr, when denoting place or time, is followed by the accusative, and sometimes poetically by the ablative; but when it signifies on, about, or concerning, it takes the ablative. With the accusative sǔper signifies over, above, besides or in addition to; with numerals, more than; as,

Săper lābentem culmina tecti, Gliding over the top of the house. Virg. Săper tres modios. Liv. Săper morbum etiam fămes affēcit exercitum. Id. Săper těněro prosternit grāmine corpus, He stretches his body on the tender grass. Virg. Multa săper Priămo rógitans săper Hectore multa, ... concerning Priam, etc. Id.

REM. 8. The compound desiper is found with the accusative, and insuper with the accusative and the ablative.

(4.) Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes, in poetry, the ablative; as,

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densā testūdīne. Virg.

(5.) Clam is followed by either the accusative or the ablative; as,

Clam vos, Without your knowledge. Cic. Clam patrem. Ter. Clam matrem suam. Plaut. Clam vobis. Cas. Neque potest clam me esse. Plaut. Clam uxore meā. Id. Its diminutive clanculum is once followed by the accusative,

clanculum patres. Ter.

Rem. 9. The adverbs versus or versum and usque are sometimes annexed to an accusative, principally of place, which depends on ad or in, and sometimes the preposition is omitted; as, Ad Oceanum versus proficisci. Cæs. Fügam ad se versum. Sall. In Galliam versus castra mövere. Id.—Usque ad Nümantiam. Cic. Usque in Pamphyliam. Id. Ad noctem usque. Plaut.—Brundüsium versus. Cic. Terminos usque Libyæ. Just. Usque Ennam proficti. Cic. Versus is always placed after the accusative.—Usque occurs more rarely with sub and trans with the accusative; as, Trans Alpes usque transfertur. Cic. Usque sub extrēmum brūmæ imbrem.—Versus also rarely follows ab, and usque either ab or ex with the ablative; as, Ab septemtrione versus. Varr. A fundāmento usque mōvisti māre. Plaut. Usque ex ultīmā Syriā. Cic. Usque a puērītiā. Ter. Usque a Romūlo. Cic. Usque a māne ad vespērum. Plaut.

REM. 10. Prepositions are often used without a noun depending upon them, but such noun may usually be supplied by the mind; as, Multis post annis,

i. e. post id tempus. Cic. Circum Concordia, scil. adem. Sall.

REM. 11. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood; as, Quid ŏpus cst plūrā? i. e. propter quid? why? i. q. cur? or quāre? Cic. So, Quid me ostentem? Id. But it is not easy, in every case, to say what preposition should be supplied. For the accusative without a preposition after neuter verbs, see § 232. For the accusative of limitation, see § 234, II.

ACCUSATIVE OF TIME AND SPACE.

§ 236. Nouns denoting duration of time, or extent of space, are put, after adjectives and verbs, in the accusative, and sometimes after verbs in the ablative; as,

Acc. Appius cœcus multos annos fuit, Appius was blind many years. Cic. Biduum Lāōdicēæ fui. Id. Dies tōtos de virtūte disserunt. Id. Te jam annum audientem Crātippum. Id.—Diervēvērunt intercālārium quinque et quādrāginta dies longum. Id.—Quum ābessem ab Amāno iter ūnius diēi. Id. Tres pāteat cœli spātium non amplius ulnas. Virg. (Cf. § 256, R. 6.) A portu stādia centum et vēginti prācessīmus. Cic.—Duas fossas quindēcim pēdes lātas perduxit,—two ditches fifteen feet broad. Cæs. Fossæ quinos pēdes alāta. Id. Fōrāmīna longa pēdes tres sēmis. Cato. Orbem ōleārium crassum dīgītos sex fatto. Id.—Abl. Vixit annis undētrīginta. Suet. Quātuordēcim annis exsīlum tölērāvīt. Tac. Trīginta annis vixit Panætius. Cic.—Exercitus Rōmānus trīdui itinēre abfuit ab anne Tānai. Tac. Æscūlāpii templum quinque millībus passuum distans. Liv.

Note 1. The ablative denoting extent of time and space is rarely used by Cicero, and less frequently than the accusative by other writers.

Note 2. The accusative denoting extent of space sometimes follows the abverbs longe, alte, etc.; as, Campestris locus alte duos pêdes et semissem infodiendus est. Colum. Vercingétórix lócum castris déligit ab Avarico longe millia passuum sedécim. Cas.

Note 3. (a.) Old, in reference to the time which a person has lived, is expressed in Latin by nātus, with an accusative of the time; as, Dācessit Alexander mensem ūnam, annos tres et trīginta nātus. Just. (b.) A person's age may also be expressed without nātus by a genitive of the time closely connected with his name, according to § 211, R. 6; as, Alexander annorum trium et trīginta dēcessit. (c.) Older or younger than a certain age is expressed by prefixing to the accusative or genitive of the definite age the ad-

verbs plus or minus, or the adjectives mājor or minor, either with or without quum. See § 256, R. 6 and 7.—Sometimes, also, the ablative depends on the comparative; as, Minor viginit quinque annis nātus. Nep. Minor trāginta annis nātu. Cic. Biennio quam nos major. Id. Cf. § 256, R. 16. (1.)

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting time or space, used to limit other nouns, are put in the genitive or ablative. See § 211, R. 6.

Rem. 2. A term of time not yet completed may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicēsīmum jam diem pātīmur hēbescēre āciem hōrum auctūritātis. Cic. Pānīco bello duodecīmum annum Itālia ūrēbātur. Liv. Hence in the passive, Nunc tertia virātur ætas. Oyid.

Rem. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Castra qua ăberant bidui, scil. spătium or spătio. Cic.

Rem. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is commonly used; as, Millibus passuum sex a Casáris castris consēdit. Cæs.; but sometimes the accusative; as, Tria passuum millia ab ipsā urbe castra pōsuit. Liv. The only words used for this purpose in the ablative alone are spātic and intervallo; as, Quindēcim ferme millium spātio castra ab Tarento pōsuit. Id.

Note 4. For abhinc and a cardinal number, with the accusative or ablative of past time, see § 253, R. 2. For the ablative denoting difference of time or space, see § 256, R. 16.

REM. 5. A preposition is sometimes expressed before an accusative of time or space, but it generally modifies the meaning; as, Quem per decem annos alumus, during ten years. Cic.

REM. 6. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, ab is sometimes placed before the ablative of distance, as if this depended on the preposition; as, A millibus passuum duōbus castra pōsuērunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cas.

REM. 7. An accusative of weight also occurs when expressed by libram or libras in connection with pondo. Cf. § 211, R. 6. (4.)

ACCUSATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 237. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of the town in which the motion ends is put in the accusative without a preposition; as,

Rēgūlus Carthāgīnem rēdiit, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Căpuam flectit iter, He turns his course to Capua. Liv. Calpurnius Rōmam proficiscătur. Sall. Rōmam ĕrat nunciātum. Cic.

REMARK 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after *iter* with *sum*, håbeo, etc.; as, *Iter est mihi* Länŭvium. Cic. Cæsårem *iter håbēre* Căpuam. Id. And even after *sum* alone; as, *Omnia illa mūnteipia*, *quæ* sunt a Vibōne Brundisium. Cic. So with a verbal noun; as, *Adventus* Rōmam. Liv. Rēdītus Rōmam. Cic.

Rem. 2. (a.) The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting to or into, which is sometimes expressed; as, In Ephësum äbii. Plaut. Ad, before the name of a town, denotes direction towards it; as, Iter dirigëre ad Mütinam. Cic.; and also its vicinity; as, Adölescentülus mīles profectus sum ad Cāpuam; i. e. in castra ad Cāpuam. Id. So, Leilus cum classe ad Brundisium vēnit. Cæs. Cæsar ad Gěnēvam pervěnit. Id. Quum ěgo ad Hērāclēam accēděrem. Cic.

(b.) When urbs, oppidum, locus, etc., follow the names of towns as appositions, they generally take a preposition; as, Dēmārātus se contúlit Tarquinos, in urbem Etrūriæ florentissīmam. Cic. Ad Cirtam oppidum iter constituunt. Sall.—So also when the name of the town is qualified by an adjective; as, Magnum

tter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas. Prop. But the poets and later prose writers sometimes omit the preposition; as, Ovid, Her. 2, 83.

REM. 3. Instead of the accusative, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Carthagini nuncios mittam. Hor. Cf. § 225, IV. and R. 2.

REM. 4. Dŏmus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite dŏmum, Go home. Virg. Galli dŏmos abiĕrant,—had gone home. Liv. Rus ibo, I will go into the country. Ter.

Note. (a.) When dŏmus is limited by a genitive or a possessive adjective pronoun, it sometimes takes a preposition: with other adjectives, the preposition is generally expressed; as, Non introvo in nostram dŏmum. Plaut. Vēnisse in dŏmum Leccæ. Cic. Ad eam dŏmum prófecti sunt. Id. In dōmos sūpēras scandĕre cūra fuit. Ovid. Rarely, also, when not limited; as, Sōcrātes philósŏpliam in dŏmos intrōduxit. Cic. So, lārem suum. App., or ad lārem suum. Cic. Cūrīcas in Albense rus inferre. Plin. Qnum in sua rūra vēnērunt. Cic. With the possessor's name in the genitive, either dŏmum or in dŏmum is used; as, Pompōnii dŏmum vēnisse. Cic. In dŏmum Matii tēla infēruntur. Liv.

(b.) D'mus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Domun rèditionis spe sublata. Cass. So, Itio domum. Cic. Concursus domum.

Rem. 5. (a.) Before the names of countries and of all other places in which the motion ends, except those of towns, and domus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, £x Asiā transis in Europam. Curt. Te in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeo. Cic. But it is sometimes omitted; as, Dēvēniunt spēluncam. Virg. Dēvēnēre locos. Id. Tumthum antiquæ Cērēvis sēdemque sacrātam vēnīmus. Id. Ibis Cēcropios portus. Ovid. So, also, before names of countries, especially those ending in us; as, Ægyptus, Bospōrus, Chersōnēsus, Epīrus, Pēloponnēsus, etc. So, also, Illýrīcum profectus. Cæs. Mācēdōniam pervēnīt. Liv. Afrīcam transītūrus. Id. So, Tacitus construes even names of natious, when used, as they often are, for those of countries; as, Ductus inde Cangos exercitus. Ibēros ad patrium regnum pervādīt. So, Virgil, Nos ibīmus Afros.—Pliny has, Insūlas Rubri Māris nācīgant.

(b.) Before the names of small islands the preposition is frequently omitted; as, Pausăniam cum classe Cyprum mīsērunt. Nep.: but rarely before the names of the larger islands; as, Sardīnia, Brītannia, Crēta, Eubea, Sīcilia.

(c.) Before accusatives of any words denoting locality after verbs of motion, the poets omit the preposition; as, Ităliam—Lāvīniāque vēnit lītēra. Virg.—The old accusative föras is used, like names of towns, to denote the place whither, while föris denotes the place where; as, Văde föras. Mart. Exit föras. Plaut.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, AND INTERJECTIONS.

§ 238. 1. (a.) The adjectives propior and proximus, with their adverbs propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are often joined with the accusative; as,

Ipse propior montem suos collocat. Sall. Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hiemārat. Cæs.—Libyes propius mare Africum agātābant. Sall. Proxime His-

pāniam Mauri sunt. Id.

(b.) The adverbs pridie and postridie are also often followed by the accusative; as, Pridie eum diem. Cic. Pridie idus. Id. Postridie lidos. Id.—(c.) An accusative sometimes follows intus accusative sometimes follows intus accominus; as, Intus domum. Plant. Agrestes cominus ire sues, scil. in. Prop.

- REMARK 1. The accusative with pridie and postridie is by some referred to ante and post understood. For the genitive after these words, see § 212, R. 4, N. 6.—Respecting versus, usque, exadversus (-um) and secus with the accusative, see § 195, R. 3: and § 235, R. 3.
- REM. 2. The adverb běne, by the elipsis of vălēre jŭbeo, is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Bēne vos, bēne nos, bēne te, bēne me, bēne nostram etiam Stēphānium! Plaut. Bēne Messālam, a health to Messala. Tibull. It is also construed with the dative. See § 228, 1.
- 2. In exclamations, the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the feeling is put in the accusative either with or without the interjections, O! ah! heu! eheu! ecce! en! hem! pro! or væ!as,

En quātuor āras! ecce duas tībi Daphni! Behold four altars! lo, two for thee, Daphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos! eccillum! for ecce eum! ecce eos! ecce illum! Plaut. O præclārum custōdem! Cic. Heu me infēlicem! Ter. Pro Deûm hŏmīnumque fīden! Cic. Ah me, me! Catull. Eheu me mīsērum! Ter. Hem astūtias! Id. Væ te! Plaut. Væ me! Sen. Mīsēram me! Ter. Hŏmīnem grāvem et cīvem ēgrēgium! Cic. Cf. § 228, 3.

Note. The accusative after interjections is supposed to depend on some verb of emotion to be supplied.

SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 239. The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative; as,

Möleste Pompeium id ferre constābat, That Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nömine appellāri fas est. Id. Mīror te ad me nihil scribēre, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jūbet esse pātentes. Virg.

- Note 1. In historical writing the present infinitive has sometimes its subject in the nominative. Cf. $\S 209$, R. 5.
- REMARK 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Est ådölescentis mājōres nātu vērēri, seil. eum. Cic. Expédit bōnas esse vōbis, seil. vos. Ter.; and rarely when it precedes in the accusative; as, Ea pōpūlus letāri et mērito dīvēre fiēri; and also when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood; as, Non fuit consilium (meum)—servīlibus offīciis intentum ætātem āgēre (scil. me). Sall.
- REM. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the subject of the preceding verb; as, *Pollicitus sum susceptūrum* (esse), scil. me, I promised (that I) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddēre posse nēgābat, scil. se. Virg.
- REM. 3. The subject of the infinitive is often omitted, when it is a general word for person or thing; as, Est ăliud îrācundum esse, ăliud īrātum, scil. hōminem. Cic. See § 269, R. 1.
- Rem. 4. The subject-accusative, like the nominative, is often wanting. See § 209, R. 3. The subject of the infinitive may be an infinitive or a clause. See § 269, R. 3.
- Note 2. For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used, see § 272. For the accusative in the predicate after infinitives neuter and passive, see § 210.

VOCATIVE.

§ 240. The vocative is used, either with or without an interjection, in addressing a person or thing.

REMARK 1. The interjections O, heu, and pro (proh), also ah, au (hau), ëhem, ëho, ehodum, eia (heia), hem, heus, hui, io, and ohe, are followed by the vocative; as,

O formõse puer! O beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte Jūpiter! Cic. Ah stulte! Ter. Heus Sğre! Id. Ohe libelle! Mart. Ehodum böne vir. Ter.—Urbem, mi Rūfe, cöle. Cic. Quinctili Vare, lēgiones redde. Suet. Quo mortfure ruis? Hor. Macte virtute esto. Cic.

REM. 2. The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, O misera sortis! scil. hömines. Lucan.

Note. The vocative forms no part of a proposition, but serves to designate the person to whom the proposition is addressed.

ABLATIVE.

The ablative denotes certain relations of nouns and pronouns, all of which are expressed in English by means of prepositions. In Latin this case is sometimes accompanied by a preposition, and sometimes stands alone. Cf. § 37, 6.

ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 241. Eleven prepositions are followed by the ablative.

These are \bar{a} , (or $\bar{a}b$, abs), $absqu\check{e}$, $d\bar{e}$; $c\bar{o}ram$, $p\check{a}lam$, cum, ex, (\bar{e}); $s\check{v}n\check{e}$, $t\check{e}n\check{w}s$, $pr\bar{o}$, and $pr\bar{w}$; as,

Ab illo tempõre, From that time. Liv. A scrībendo, From writing. Cic. Gene exercitu, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex fūgā, From flight. Id. Pālam pōpālo. Liv. Sīne lābīre. Cic. Căpūlo těnus. Virg. Cantābit vācuus cōram lātrōne viātor. Juv. cf. § 195, 5.

Note. Of the prepositions followed by the ablative, five signify removal or separation, viz. \bar{a} (ab or abs), $d\bar{c}$, \bar{c} (or ex), $absqu\bar{c}$ and $sin\bar{c}$.

REMARK 1. $T\check{e}nus$ is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genitive plural. See § 221, III.—Cum is always appended to the ablative of the personal pronouns me, te, se, $n\check{o}bis$, and $v\check{o}bis$, and commonly to the ablatives of the relative pronoun, quo, $qu\check{o}$, $qu\check{o}$, $qu\check{o}$, $qu\check{o}$. Cf. § 133, 4, and § 136, R. 1.

REM. 2. The adverbs procul and simul are sometimes used with an ablative, which depends on the prepositions a or ab, and cum understood; as, Procul mari, Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nobis habitat. Ovid. Procul dubio. Suet. The prepositions are frequently expressed; as, Procul a terrā. Cic. Procul a patrā. Virg. Tēcum simul. Plaut. Vöbiscum simul. Cic.—So, rarely, aque. Qui me in terrā aque fortūnātus ērit. Plaut. Cf. Novi aque omnia tēcum. Id.

Rem. 3. Some of the above prepositions, like those followed by the accusative, are occasionally used without a noun expressed; as, Quum coram sumus. Cic. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cf. § 235, R. 10.

REM. 4. The ablative follows also the prepositions in and sub, when they answer to the question 'where?' super, when it signifies 'on' or 'concerning'; and sometimes clam and subter. Cf. § 225, (2.)—(5.)

REM. 5. In is generally joined with the ablative after verbs of placing, as, pōno, loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, and consido; as, Et sale tabentes artus in litore pōnunt. Virg.—So, also, after verbs signifying to hare, hold, or regard,

as, häbeo, dūco, nŭmëro, etc.—After verbs of assembling, concealing, and including, in is followed by either the accusative or the ablative.—After dēfigo, inscribo, insculpo, incīdo, and insero, in is usually joined with the ablative.

§ 242. Many verbs compounded with \check{ab} , $d\bar{e}$, ex, and $s\check{u}per$, are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition; as,

Abesse urbe, To be absent from the city. Cic. Abīre sēdībus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Ul se mālēdīctis non abstīneant. Cic. Dētrūdant nāves scopūlo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Nāvi ēgressus est. Nep. Excēdēre finībus. Liv. Cæsar prælio sūpersēdēre stātuit. Cæs. Tribūto ac dēlectu sūpersessum est. Cic. So the adjective extorris; as, Extorris patriā, domo. Sall. And so the verbal ēruptio; as, Mūtīnā ēruptio. Cic.

REMARK 1. The preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as, Dētrāhēre de tuā fāmā numquam cōgītāvi. Cic. Ex ŏcălis ăbiērunt. Liv. Exīre a patriā. Cic. Exīre de vītā. Id. Cf. § 224, R. 4.

REM. 2. These compound verbs are often used without a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equites degressi ad pedes, scil. equis. Liv. Abire ad Deos, scil. vitā. Cic.

REM. 3. Some verbs compounded with ab, de, and ex, instead of the ablative, are sometimes followed by the dative. See § 224, R. 1 and 2. Some compounds, also, of neuter verbs, occur with the accusative. See § 233, R. 1.

ABLATIVE AFTER CERTAIN NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, AND VERBS.

§ **243.** Opus and $\bar{u}sus$, signifying need, usually take the ablative of the thing needed; as,

Auctōrĭtāte tuā nōbis ŏpus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nunc ănĭmis ŏpus, nunc pectŏre firmo. Virg. Nāves, quibus consūli ūsus non esset, Ships, for which the consul had no occasion. Liv. Nunc vīrībus ūsus, nunc manībus rāpīdis. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) Opus and ūsus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Mātūrāto ŏpus est, There is need of haste. Liv. Usus facte st mīhi. Ter. Ubi summus impērātor non ādest ad exercītum, citius, quod non facto est ūsus, fit, quam quod facto est ŏpus. Plaut. After ŏpus, a noun is sometimes expressed with the participle; as, Opus fuit Hirtio convento,—of meeting, or, to meet, § 274, R. 5. Cic. Opus sībi esse domīno ējus invento. Liv.—or a supine is used; as, fla dictu ŏpus est, It is necessary to say, I must say. Ter.—Instead of the ablative with opus est, an infinitive, either alone or with a subject accusative, or ut with a subjunctive clause, sometimes occurs; as, Opus est te ānimo vālēre. Cic. Mīhi ŏpus est, ut lāvem. Id.

(b.) Opus and usus, though nouns, are seldom limited by the genitive. In a few passages they are construed with the accusative. See § 211, R. 11.

REM. 2. Opus is sometimes the subject and sometimes the predicate of est; usus, which seldom occurs except in ante-classic poets, is, with only rare exceptions, the subject only. The person to whom the thing is needful is put in the dative; (§ 226.) With opus the thing needed may either be the subject of the verb in the nominative or accusative, or follow it in the ablative; as, Dux nobis opus est. Cic. Verres multa sibi opus esse aiebat. Id.; or, Dūce nobis opus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns; as, Quod non opus est, asse cārum est. Cato apud Sen.—In the predicate opus and ūsus are commonly translated 'needful' or 'necessary.' Cf. § 210, R. 5.

Note. For the ablative of character, quality, etc., limiting a noun, see § 211, R. 6

§ 244. Dignus, indignus, contentus, præditus, and frētus, are followed by the ablative of the object; as,

Dignus laude, Worthy of praise. Hor. Vox populi mājestāte indigna, A speech unbecoming the dignity of the people. Cæs. Bestiæ eo contentæ non quærunt amplius. Cic. Homo scelere præditus. Id. Plērīque ingenio frēti. Id.—So, Æquum est me atque illo. Plaut.

REMARK 1. The adverb digne, in one passage, takes the ablative; Peccat üter nostrum crūce dignius. Hor.—Dignor, also, both as the passive of the obsolete digno, and as a deponent verb, is followed by an ablative of the thing. As a deponent it takes also an accusative of the person; as, Huud equidem tali me honore dignor. Virg.—Pass. Qui tāli honore dignāti sunt. Cic. Conjūgio, Anchīsa, Vēnēris dignāte superbo. Virg.—Sometimes as a deponent, instead of the ablative of the thing, it is followed by an infinitive clause; as, Non ego grammātīcas ambīre trībus et pulpīta dignor. Hor. And both dignor and dēdignor are followed by two accusatives, one of the object the other of the predicate. See § 230, R. 2.

REM. 2. (a.) Dignus and indignus are sometimes followed by the genitive; as, Suscipe cogitationem dignissimam tuw virtutis. Cic. Indignus avorum. Virg.; and dignus sometimes takes a neuter pronoun or adjective in the accusative; as, Non me censes scire quid dignus siem? Plaut. Frētus is in Livy construed with the dative. Cf. § 222, R. 6, (b.)

(b.) Instead of an ablative, dignus and indignus often take an infinitive, especially in the passive; as, Erat dignus ămări. Virg.; or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut; as, Dignus qui impèret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut figam pālum in pāriētem. Plaut.; or the supine in u; as, Digna atque indigna rēlātu vēcifērans. Virg. Contentus is likewise joined with the infinitive; as, Non hac artes contenta păternas ēdīdīcisse fuit. Ovid.—So, Nāves pontum irrumpère frēta. Stat.

§ 245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, vescor, and their compounds, are followed by the ablative; as,

Ad quem tum Jūno supplex his vōcībus ūsa est,—addressed these words. Virg. Frui vōluptāte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Fungitur officio, He performs his duty. Id. Oppido potiti sunt. Liv. Vescitur aurā. Virg. His rēbus perfruor. Cic. Lēgībus abāti. Id. Dēfuncti impērio. Liv. Grāvi opēre perfungimur. Cic. O tandem magnis pēlāgi dēfuncte pērīclis. Virg.

The compounds are abūtor, deūtor, perfruor, defungor, and perfungor.

Note. Utor may take a second ablative, as an apposition or a predicate, like the predicate accusative, (§ 230, R. 2), and may then be translated by the verb to have; as, Ille făcili me $\bar{u}t\bar{e}tur$ patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

REMARK. In early writers these verbs sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem mědici ūtuntur. Varr. Ingënium frui. Ter. Datāmes militāre mūnus fungens. Nep. Gentem āliquam urbem nostram pŏtītūram pūtem. Cic. Sacras lauros vescar. Tibull. In prologis scribendis ŏpēram ābūtītur. Ter.—Pŏtior is, also, found with the genitive. See § 220, 4.

- II. 1. Nitor, innitor, fido and confido, may be followed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Hastā innixus. Liv. Fidere cursu. Ovid. Nātūrā löci confidebant. Cæs.
- 2. Misceo with its compounds takes, with the accusative of the object, the ablative of the thing mingled with; as, Miscēre pābūla săle. Coll. Aquas necture. Ovid. Aër multo calore admixtus. Cic.
- 3. Assuesco, assuefácio, consuesco, insuesco, and sometimes acquiesco, take either the dative or the ablative of the thing; as, Aves sanguine et prædå assuetæ. Hor. Nullo officio aut disciplinā assuefactus. Cæs. Cf. § 224.

4. Vivo and epulor, 'to live or feast upon,' are followed by the ablative; as, Dăpibus epulâmur opimis. Virg. Lacte atque pecore vivunt. Cæs.

5. Sto signifying 'to be filled or covered with,' and also when signifying 'to cost,' is followed by the ablative without a preposition; when signifying 'to persevere in, stick to, abide by,' 'to rest or be fixed on,' it is followed by the ablative either with or without in; as, Jam pulvère cœlum stāre vīdent. Virg.—Multo sanguine ac vulnērībus ea Pænis victōria stětit. Liv. Stāre conditionībus. Cic. Omnis in Ascānio stat cūra pārentis. Virg.—Consto, 'to consist of' or 'to rest upon,' is followed by the ablative either alone or with ex, de, or in; as, Constat materies solido corpore. Lucr. Homo ex animo constat et corpore. Cic.

REMARK 1. Fido, confido, misceo, admisceo, permisceo, and assuesco often take the dative.

REM. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, sto, fido, confīdo, nītor, innītor, and assuesco take in or ad; acquiesco, in; and misceo with its compounds, cum.

§ 246. Perfect participles denoting origin are often followed by the ablative of the source, without a preposition.

Such are nātus, prognātus, sātus, creātus, crētus, ēdītus, genītus, genērātus, ortus; to which may be added oriundus, descended from.

Thus, Nāte deā ! O son of a goddess! Virg. Tantālo prōgnātus, Descended from Tantalus. Cic. Sātus Nēreide, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Creātus rēge. Id. Alcānōre crēti. Virg. Edīte rēgibus. Hor. Düs gēnīte. Virg. Argōtco gēnērātus Alēmōne. Ovid. Ortus nullis mājūribus. Hor. Cælesti sēmīne ŏriundi. Lucr.

REMARK 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after the verbs creo, genero, and nascor; as, Ut patre certo nascerere. Cic. Fortes creantur fortibus. Hor.

REM. 2. After participles denoting origin, the preposition ex or de is usually joined to the name of the mother; and in a few passages ex or ab is joined to the name of the father; as, Prognati ab Dite patre. Cas. In speaking of one's ancestors ab is frequently used; as, Plērosque Belgas esse ortos a Germānis. Id.

Rem. 3. Origin from a place or country is generally expressed by a patrial adjective; as, Thrasybūlus Athēniensis, Thrasybulus of Alhens. Livy often uses ab; as, Turnus Herdūnius ab Arīciā. Cæsar prefers the ablative alone; as, Cn. Magius Cremonā; and in this manner is expressed the tribe to which a person belongs; as, Q. Verres Romilia, -of the Romilian tribe.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, ETC.

§ 247. Nouns denoting the cause, manner, means, and instrument, after adjectives and verbs, are put in the ablative without a preposition.

NOTE. The English prepositions with the ablative of cause, manner, means, and instrument are by, with, in, etc.

1. The cause. (1.) Adjectives which have a passive signification, as denoting a state or condition produced by some external cause, may take such cause in the ablative; as,

Campāni fuērunt superbi bonitāte agrārum. Cic. Animal pābulo lætum. Sen. Prælio fessi lassique, Weary and faint with the battle. Sall. Homines ægri grăvi morbo. Cic.

(2.) Neuter verbs expressing an action, state or feeling of the subject originating in some external cause, may take that cause in the ablative; as,

Intëriit făme, He perished with hunger. Laude ălienă dölet. Cic. Lætor tuă dignitâte. Id. Gaude tuo bono. Id. Suā victoria gloriari. Cæs. Aquilonibus làbōrant quercēta. Hor.—So with bene est and the dative; as, Mihi bene erat non piscibus urbe petitis, sed pullo atque hædo. Hor. Ubi illi bene sit ligno, ăqua călida, cibo, vestimentis, etc. Plaut.

NOTE 1. After such adjectives and neuter verbs, a preposition with its case often supplies the place of the simple ablative.

NOTE 2. In exclamations of encouragement or approbation, the defective adjective macte, macti, either with or without the imperative of esse (esto, este, estote,) is joined with an ablative of cause, especially with virtute.

Note 3. After neuter verbs and adjectives denoting emotions, especially those of care, grief, and sorrow, the accusative vicem, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative vice, to signify 'for' or 'on account of'; as, Rěmittimus hoc tibi, ne nostram vicem irascâris, That you may not be angry on our account. Liv. Tuam vicem sape doleo, quod, etc. Cic. Suam vicem māgis anxius, quam ejus, cui auxilium ab se pětěbátur. Liv.

REMARK 1. When the cause is a voluntary agent, it is put in the accusative with the preposition ob, propter, or per; as, Non est equum me propter vos decipi. Ter. These prepositions, and a, or ab, de, e or ex, and præ, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; as, Ob adulterium cæsi. Virg. Nec lŏqui præ mærōre pŏtuit. Cic.

REM. 2. (a.) After active verbs, the cause, unless expressed by an ablative REM. 2. (a.) After active verbs, the cause, unless expressed by an ablative in u from substantives having no other case; as, Jussu, rōgātu and admōūtu, is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, or by causā, gratiā, ergo, etc., with a genitive; as, Lēgābus propter mētum pāret. Cic. Ne ob eam rem ipsos dēspicēret. Id. Dōnāri virtūtis ergo, Id. Si hoc hōnōris mei causā suscēpēris. Id. But with causā, etc., the adjective pronoun is commonly used for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te ābesse meā causā, mōleste fēro. Cic. Cf. § 211, R. 3, (b.)

(b.) When the cause is a state of feeling, a circumlocution is often used with a perfect participle of some verb signifying 'to induce'; as, Cūpidātāte ductus, inductus, incetātus incensus infammātus; muslus mūtus captus etc. Mībi bērā-

inductus, incitatus, incensus, inflammātus, impulsus, motus, captus, etc. Mihi bene-volentiā ductus trībucbat omnia. Cic. Livy frequently uses ab in this sense;

as, Ab īrā, a spe, ab ŏdio, from anger, hope, hatred.

2. The manner. Cum is regularly joined with the ablative of manner, when expressed simply by a noun, not modified by any other word; and also when an adjective is joined with the noun, provided an additional circumstance, and not merely an essential character of the action, is to be expressed.

Cum völuptāte ăliquem audīre. Verres Lampsacum vēnit cum magnā călămitate civitatis. Cic. Hence also when the connection between the subject and the noun denoting the attribute is only external; as, Prōcēdĕre cum veste purpuren: in distinction from Nudis pedibus incedere; Aperto capite sedere, etc.,

which express circumstances or attributes essential to the subject.

But nodus, ratio, mos, ritus, etc., signifying manner, never take cum, and it is omitted in some expressions with other substantives; as, Hoc modo scripsi; Constituerunt quā ratione agerētur; More bestiarum vagari; Latronum rītu vīvere; Æquo animo fero; Maximā file amācītus coluit. Summā æquitāte res constitutions in the substantial substan tuil; Viam incrēdībīli celerītāte confecit; Librum magnā cūrā dīlīgentiāque scripsit; the action of the verb being intimately connected with the circumstance expressed by the ablative. So in some expressions with substantives alone; as, Silentio prætěrīre or făcere ăliquid; Lêge ăgere; Jūre and injūriā făcere; Magistratus vitio creatus; Recte et ordine fit.

REM. 3. The minner is also sometimes denoted by de or ex with the ablative; as, De or ex industria, On purpose. Liv. Ex integro, Anew. Quint.

3. The means and instrument. An ablative is joined with verbs of every kind, and also with adjectives of a passive signification, to express the means or instrument; as,

Amīcos observantiā, rem parsīmoniā rētīnuit, He retained his friends by attention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro ostroque dēcori. Virg. Ægrescit mēdendo. Id. Cornībus tauri, apri dentībus, morsu leones se tātantur. Cic. Cæsus est virgis. Id. Trabs saucia sēcārī. Ovid. For the ablative of the means after verbs of filling, etc., see § 249, I.

Rem. 4. When the means is a person, it is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by per, or by the ablative \(\chi p \) \(\text{in} \) at the appearance of the ablative \(\chi p \) \(\text{in} \) at the appearance of person only; as, \(mea, tu\) \(tu\), \(\chi p \) \(\chi p \) \(\chi n\) are equivalent to \(p \) er \(me, p \) referse, and denote both good and bad services. \(\lambda \) \(\text{End} \) \(\chi \) is the edge of good results only; as, \(\lambda \) \(\text{End} \) \(\frac{\chi p}{\chi p} \) is the appearance of since of a involuntary agents, and as such expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Servos, quibus \(\silde \) silvas \(p \) ublicas \(\delta \) popularius \(\delta \) rate. \(\text{Univ} \) when \(p \) er is used to express the means, it is connected with external concurring circumstances, rather than with the real means or instrument. Hence we always say \(ri\) expiration \(\delta \) for \(ri\) in \(ri\) in \(ri\) is the per \(ri\) in \(ri\) bon \(\delta \) repuir.

Rem. 5. The material instrument is always expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Conficere corrum săgistis; gladio ăliquem vuluărăre; trăjicere pectus ferro.

- § 248. The ablative is used with passive verbs to denote the means or agent by which any thing is effected, and which in the active voice is expressed by the nominative. This ablative is used either with ab or without it, according as it is a person or a thing.
- I. The voluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with a or ab; as,
- (In the active voice,) Clodius me diligit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive,) A Clodio diligor, I am loved by Clodius. Laudstur ab his, eulpatur ab illis. Hor.
- REMARK 1. (1.) The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Probitas laudātur, scil. ab hominibus. Juv. So after the passive of neuter verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Toto certātum est corpore regni. Id. Cf. § 141, R. 2.
- (2.) The agent is likewise often understood, when it is the same as the subject of the verb, and the expression is then equivalent to the active voice with a reflexive pronoun, or to the middle voice in Greek; as, Quum omnes in omni genère scelerum volutentur, scil. a se. Cic.
- REM. 2. Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with a or ab; as,
- M. Marcellus pěriit ab Annibăle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plan. Ne vir ab hoste cădat. Ovid.
- REM. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Nec conjuge captus. Ovid. Colitur linigéra turba. Id. Péreat meis excisus Argivis. Hor.

For the dative of the agent after verbs in the passive voice, and participles in dus, see § 225, II. and III.

II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, or of a neuter verb, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as, Maximo dölöre conficior. Cic. Frangi căpidităte. ld. Æácidæ tēlo jácet Hector. Virg.

Note. The involuntary agent is sometimes personified, and takes a or ab; as, A voluptātībus deseri. Cic. A nātūrā datum homini vivendi curriculum. Id. Vinci a voluptate. Id. Victus a labore. Id.

§ 249. I. A noun denoting the means, by which the action of a verb is performed, is put in the ablative after verbs signifying to affect in any way, to fill, furnish, load, array, equip, endow, adorn, reward, enrich, and many others.

spergo, compleo, expleo, impleo, oppleo, repleo, suppleo, cimilo, farcio, réfercio, satio, exsatio, satiro, sippo, constipo, dorto, dorto, augeo, induo, vestio, armo, orno, circumdo, circumfundo, macto, locupleto, instruo, imbuo, dono, impertio, rémaneror, honesto, honoro, etc.; as, REMARK 1. This rule includes such verbs as afficio, aspergo, conspergo, inspergo, re-

Terrore implētur Africa, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instruzēre epūlis mensas, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. Ut ējus animum his opinienībus imbuas, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Cic. Naves one rant auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Cumulat allaria donis, He heaps the altars with gifts. Id. Terra se gramme vestit, The earth clothes itself with grass. Id. Mollibus ornābat cornua sertis. Id. Multo cibo et potione complèti. Cic. Libros puèrilibus făbălis réfercire. Id. Sătiari delectătione non possum. Id. Hömines sătărâti honoribus. Id. Senectus stipata stădiis juventătis. Id. Me tanto honore honestas. Plaut. Equis Africam lécuplétărit. Colum. Studium tuum nullā me novā voluptāte affēcit. Cic. Terram nox obruit umbris. Lucr.

REM. 2. Several verbs denoting to fill, instead of the ablative, sometimes

take a genitive. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. The active verbs induo, dono, impertio, aspergo, inspergo, circumdo, and circumfundo, instead of the ablative of the thing with the accusative of the person, sometimes take an accusative of the thing, and a dative of the person; as, Cui quum Deiánara tănicam indusset. Cic. Donare munera civibus. In the earliest writers dono, like condono, has sometimes two accusatives or an accusative of the person with the infinitive.

II. A noun denoting that in accordance with which any thing is, or is done, is often put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Nostro more, According to our custom. Cic. Instituto suo Cusar copias suas educit, According to his practice. Cass. Id factum consilio meo,—by my advice. Ter. Pacem fecit his conditionibus,—on these conditions. Nep.

Note. The prepositions de, ex, pro, and secundum are often expressed with such nouns; as, Nique est facturus quidquam nisi de meo consilio. Cic. Ex consuëtudine aliquid facere. Plin. Ep. Decet quidquid agas, agere pro viribus. Cic. Secundum natūram vīvere. Id.

III. The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum; as,

Văgămur ĕgentes cum conjugtbus et liberis, Needy, we wander with our wives and children. Cic. Sape admirări săleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Id. Jălium cum his ad te literis mīsi. Id. Ingressus est cum glădio. Id. Rōmam vēni cum febri. Cum occăsu sōlis copias ēdūtēre,—as soon as the sun set.

REMARK. But cum is sometimes omitted before words denoting military and naval forces, when limited by an adjective; as, Ad castra Cusáris omnibus copiis contenderunt. Cæs. Inde toto exercitu profectus. Liv. Eodem decem nautous C. Furius venit. Liv. And sometimes in military language cum is omitted, when accompanying circumstances are mentioned, and not persons; as, Custra clāmore invadunt.

§ 250. 1. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is taken; as.

Piĕtāte fīlius, consīliis părens, In affection a son, in counsel a parent. Cic. Rēges nōmine máyis quam impērio, Kings in name rather than in authority. Nep. Oppidum nōmine Bibrax. Cæs.—Jūre pĕrītus, Skilled in law. Cic. Anxius ānimo, Anxious in mind. Tac. Pĕdibus æger, Lame in his feet. Sall. Crīne rūber, niger ōre. Mart. Fronte letus. Tac. Mūjor nūtu. Cic. Prūdentii non injērior, usu vēro ĕtiam supērior. Id. Maxīmus nātu. Liv.—Anīmo angi, To be troubled in mind. Cic. Contrēmisco totā mente et onnībus artūbus, I am agitated in my whole mind and in every limb. Id. Cuptus mente, Affected in mind, i.e. deprived of reason. Id. Altēro ōcūlo cāpītur. Liv. Ingēnīi laude flōruit. Cic. Pollēre nōbilitāte. Tac. Anīmōque et corpōre torpet. Hor.

REMARK. This may be called the ablative of limitation, and denotes the relation expressed in English by 'in respect of,' 'in regard to,' 'as to,' or 'in.'—Respecting the genitive of limitation after adjectives, see § 213;—after verbs, § 220, 1: and respecting the accusative of limitation, see § 231, R. 5; § 232, (3.); and § 234, II.

2. (1.) Adjectives of plenty or want are sometimes limited by the ablative; as,

Domus plēna servis, A house full of servants. Juv. Dives agris, Rich in land. Hor. Förax secülum bönis artibus. Plin.—Inops verbis, Deficient in words. Cic. Orba frātribus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arböribus solum. Colum. Nādus agris. Hor. For the genitive after adjectives of plenty and want, see § 213, R. 3-5.

(2.) Verbs signifying to abound, and to be destitute, are followed by the ablative; as,

Scătentem belluis pontum, The sea abounding în monsters. Hor. Urbs rédundat militibus, The city îs full of soldiers. Auct. ad Her. Villa ăbundat porco, hædo, agno, gallinā, lacte, cāseo, melle. Cic.—Virum qui pēcūniā ēgeat, A man who is in want of money. Id. Cārēre culpā, To be free from fault. Id. Mea ădólescentia indiget illörum bōnā existimātione. Id. Abundat audāciā, consīlio et rătione dēf ictur. Id.

REMARK 1. To this rule belong ăbundo, exūběro, rědundo, scăteo, affluo, circumfluo, diffluo, sŭperfluo, suppědito, văleo, vigeo;—căreo, ěgeo, indigeo, văco, dēficior, dēstituor, etc.

REM. 2. The *genitive*, instead of the ablative, sometimes follows certain verbs signifying to abound or to want. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. To do any thing with a person or thing, is expressed in Latin by făcere with de; as, Quid de Tulliolă meā fiet? Cic.; and more frequently by the simple ablative, or the dative; as, Quid hoc homine or huic homini făciātis? What can you do with this man? Cic. Nescit quid făciat auro,—what he shall do with the gold. Plaut. Quid me fiat parvi pendis, You care little what becomes of me. Ter.—Sum is occasionally used in the same manner; as, Métum céperunt quidnam se fütūrum esset,—what would become of them. Liv.

§ 251. A noun denoting that of which any thing is deprived, or from which it is freed, removed, or separated, is often put in the ablative without a preposition.

This construction occurs after verbs signifying to deprive, free, debar, drive away, remove, depart, and others which imply separation.

Note. The principal verbs of this class are arceo, pello, depello, expello, abdico, interdico, defendo, deturbo, deficio, eficio, absterreo, deterreo, moveo, amoveo, demoveo, removeo, secerno, prolitbeo, separo, exclulo, intercludo, abeo, exeo, cedo, decedo, desisto, evado, abstineo, spólio, privo, orbo, libero, expédio, laxo, nudo, solvo, exolvo, exonero, levo, purgo, to which may be added the adjectives liber, immunis, purus, vácuus, and alienus; as,

Nădantur arböres foliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libëra metu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Tăne eam philosophiam sequere, qua spoliat nos jūdleio, privat approbatione, orbat sensībus? Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu. Virg. Te illis sēdībus arcēbū. Cic. Q. Varium pellēre possessionībus conātus est. Id. Omnes trību rēmoti. Liv. Lēvāre se ære ăliēno. Cic. Me lēves chōri sēcernunt popūlo. Hor. Animus omni liber cūrā et angōre. Cic. Ulrumque hōmīne āliēnissimum. Id. When āliēnus significs 'averse' or 'hostile to,' it takes the ablative with ab, or rarely the dative; as, Id dīcit, quod illi causæ maxime est āliēnum. Id. In the sense of 'unsuited,' it may also be joined with the gentive; as, Quis ăliēnum pūtet ējus esse dignītātis? Id.—Alius too, in analogy with adjectives and verbs of separation, sometimes takes an ablative; as, Nēve pūtes ālium săpiente bonoque beātum. Hor.; but this may also be referred to the ablative after comparatives. Cf. § 256, R. 14.

REMARK 1. Most verbs of depriving and separating are more or less frequently followed by ab, de, or ex, with the ablative of the thing, and always by ab with the ablative of the person; as, Tu $J\bar{u}piter$, hunc a tuis āris arcēbis. Cic. Præsīdium ex arce pēpūlērunt. Nep. Aquam de agro pellēre. Plin. Ex ingrātā cīvītātā cēdēre. Cic. Arcem ab incendio libērāvīt. Id. Solvēre belluam ex cātēuis. Auct. ad Her.—Sēdes rēmōlas a Germānis. Cæs. Se ab Etruscis sēcernēre. Liv.

REM. 2. Arceo, in the poets, sometimes takes the dative, see § 224, R. 2., and sometimes an infinitive; as, Plāgamque sedere cedendo arcebat. Ovid.— Prohibeo and defende take either the accusative of the person or thing to be defended, with the ablative of the thing to be warded off—or the reverse aliquem or aliquid a periculo, or periculum ab alique. They are also sometimes construed with the dative, see § 224, R. 2, and sometimes with infinitive or subjunctive clauses. Prohibeo has rarely two accusatives; as, Id to Jupiter prohibessit. Plant.; or poetically the accusative and genitive; as, Captae prohibere Panos aquilæ. Sil.—Interdico takes the person either in the accusative or the dative, and the thing in the ablative, aliquem or alicui aliqua re; as, Quibus quum ăqua et igni interdixissent. Cæs .- Instead of the ablative, a subjunctive clause with ne, and more rarely with ut, sometimes follows interdico .- Absum, in like manner, takes the ablative with ab, and sometimes the dative; as, Curta nescio quid semper abest rei. Hor. Cf. § 224, R. 1.—Abdico takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounced; as, Abdicāre se māgistrātu. Cic. Abdicāre māgistrātum. Sall. In Plautus, cir-cumdūco, to cheat, takes the ablative of the thing. Interclūdo, instead of an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person; as, Itinerum angustiæ multǐtūdīni fugam interclūserant. Cæs.: and, instead of the ablative of the thing, a subjunctive clause with quominus occurs: Intercludor dolore, quominus ad to plūra scrībam. Cic.

REM. 3. Verbs which signify to distinguish, to differ, and to disagree, are generally construed with ab, but sometimes, especially in the poets, with the ablative alone.

Note. Verbs signifying to distinguish, etc., are distinguo, discerno, secerno, diffèro, discrèpo, dissideo, disto, dissentio, discordo, abhorreo, alièno, and abalièno.— Dissentio, dissideo, discrèpo, and discordo are construed also with cum.—The verbs which signify to differ are sometimes construed with the dative; as, Distat infido scurræ amicus. Hor., and in like manner the adjective diversus; as, Nihil est tam Lysiæ diversum, quam Isocrates. Quint.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

§ **252.** The *price* or *value* of a thing is put in the ablative, when it is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive; as,

Quum te trecentis tălentis regi Cotto vendidisses, When vou had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents. Cic. Vendidit hic auro patriam, This one sold his country for gold. Virg. Cibus üno asse vênălis. Plin. Constitit quădringentis millibus. Varr. Denis in diem assibus ănimum et corpus (militum) estimări. Tac. Levi momento estimăre. Ces. Istuc verbum vile est viginti minis. Plaut. Asse cărum est. Sen. Ep.

REMARK 1. The verbs which take an ablative of price or value are (1) æstimo, dūco, fūcio, fīo, hābeo, pendo, pūto, dēpūto, taxo: (2) ĕmo, mercor, vendo, do, vēneo, sto, consto, prosto, condūco, lūco, valeo, luo, and līceo.—To these must be added others, which express some act or enjoyment for which a certain price spaid; as, Lāvor quādrante. Trīginta millībus Culius hābitat. Cic. Vīx drachmis est obsūnātus dēcem. Ter. Dōceo tālento, etc. So esse in the sense 'to be worth'; as, Sextante sal in Itāliā ĕrat.

REM. 2. Respecting the genitive of price or value, when expressed in a general or indefinite manner, see § 214.

REM. 3. The price of a thing, contrary to the general rule, is often expressed indefinitely by a neuter adjective; as, magno, permagno, parvo, tantulo, plure, minimo, plurimo, vili, viliori, vilissimo, nimio, etc.; as, Plūre vēnit. Cic. Conduxis non magno domum. 1d. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as prētio, ære, and the like, which are sometimes expressed; as, Parvo prētio ea rendidisse. Cic.—The adverbs bēne, publike, rette, male, cāre, etc., sometimes take the place of the genitive or ablative of price; as, Bēne ēmēre; recte vendēre; optime vendēre, etc.

REM. 4. Varro has used văleo with the accusative; as, Dēnārii dieti, quod dēnos aris vălebant.

Rem. 5. Māto and its compounds, commūto and permūto, are commonly construed like verbs of selling, the thing parted with being put in the accusative, and the thing received in exchange for it, in the ablative; as, Chāonian glandem pingui mūtāvit āristā. Virg. But these cases are often reversed, so that the thing received is put in the accusative and the thing given for it in the ablative; as, Cur valle permūtem Sābīnā divītias opērosiores? Why should I exchange my Sabīne valley for more wearisome riches? Hor.—Sometimes in this construction cum is joined with the ablative.

ABLATIVE OF TIME.

§ 253. A noun denoting the time at or within which any thing is said to be, or to be done, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Die quinto decessit, He died on the fifth dav. Nep. Hoc tempore, At this time. Cic. Tertia vigilia eruptionem fecerunt, They made a sally at the third watch. Cocs. Ut hieme naviges, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. Proximo triennio omnes gentes subegit. Nep. Agamennon cum universa Gracia vix decem annis unam cepit urbem. Nep.

Note 1. The English expression 'by day' is rendered in Latin either by interdiu or die; 'by night,' by noctu or nocte; and 'in the evening,' by vespëre or vespëri; see § 82, Exc. 5, (a.) Lādis is used for in tempöre lūdōrum; and Sāturnālibus, Lātīnis, glādiātōribus, for lādis Sāturnālibus, etc. Other nouns not properly expressing time are used in that sense in the ablative either with or without in, as inītio, principio, adrentu and discessu ālicājus, cōnītiis, timultu, bello, pāce, etc.; or in inītio, etc. But bello is more common without in, if it is

joined with an adjective or a genitive; as, Bello Pūnīco secundo, bello Latīnō-rum; and so, also, pugrā Cannensi. So we say in puēritiā, but omit in with an adjective; as, extrēmā puērītiā. In is very rarely used with nouns expressing a certain space of time; as, annus, dies, hōra, etc., for the purpose of denoting the time of an event. In tempōre signifies either 'in distress,' or 'in time,' i. e. 'at the right time'; but in both cases tempōre alone is used, and tempōre in the sense of 'early' has even become an adverb, an earlier form of which was tempōri or tempērī, whose comparative is tempērius.

REMARK 1. When a period is marked by its distance before or after another fixed time, it may be expressed by ante or post with either the accusative or the ablative.—(a) The preposition is regularly placed before the accusative, but after the ablative. If an adjective is used, the preposition is often placed between the adjective and the noun. In this connection the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers may be used. Hence the English phrase 'after three years,' or 'three years after,' may be expressed in these eight ways; post tres annos, tribus annis post; post tertium annum, tertio anno post; tres post annos, tribus post annis; tertium post annum, tertio post anno.

(b.) When ante or post stands last, an accusative may be added to denote the time before or after which any thing took place; as, Multis annis post decemviros. Cic. So Consul factus est annis post Römam conditam trecentis duo-

dēnonāginta.

NOTE 2. Post and ante sometimes precede the ablatives, as ante annis octo; post paucis diebus; and also before such ablatives as are used adverbially, as post aliquanto; ante paulo.

Note 3. Quam and a verb are sometimes added to post and ante in all the forms above specified; e. g. tribus annis postquam vēnērat; post tres annos quam vēnērat; tertio anno postquam vēnērat; post annum tertium quam vēnērat, etc.; all of which expressions signify 'three years after he had come.' Sometimes post is omitted; as, tertio anno quam vēnērat.

Note 4. Instead of postquam, 'after,' we may use exquo, quum, or a relative agreeing with the preceding ablative; as, I pse octo dicbus, quibus has lücras dabam, cum Lépidi côpias me conjungam; i. e. in eight days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. Fam. Mors Sex. Roscii quatriduo, quo is occisus est, Chrysogono nuntiatur,—four days after he had been killed. Cic. Quem trīduo, quum has dābam lītēras, exspectābam,—three days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. In such cases in is sometimes joined with the ablative; as, In diebus paucis, quibus hoc acta sunt, môritur. Ter.

Rem. 2. The length of time before the present moment may be expressed by abline with the accusative, and, less frequently, the ablative; as, Questor fuistiabline annos quatuordecim. Cic. Comities jam abline triginta diebus habitis. Id. The same is also expressed by ante with the pronoun hie; as, anne hos sex menses maledixisti mihi,—six months ago. Phæd. Ante is sometimes used instead of ablanc: and the length of time before is sometimes expressed by the ablative joined with hic or ille; as, Paucis his diebus, or paucis illis diebus,—a few days ago.

REM. 3. The time at which any thing is done, is sometimes expressed by the neuter accusative id, with a genitive; as, $V\bar{e}nit$ id temp'oris. Gic. So with a preposition; Ad id $di\bar{e}i$. Gell. See § 212, R. 3.

REM. 4. (a.) The time at or within which any thing is done, is sometimes, with personal subjects, expressed by de, with the ablative; as, De tertia vigilia ad hostes contendit,—in the third watch. Case. It jügülent hömines surgunt de nocte latrones. Hor. So, also, with sub: as, Ne sub ipsā profectione mīlites oppidum irrumpērent,—at the very time of his departure. Case. Sub adventu Romanswere arriving. Id.

(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by

(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dīmidiam partem nātionum sūbēgit intra vīginti dies. Plant. Intra dēcimum diem, quam Phēras vēnērat, In less than ten days

after... Liv.

REM. 5. The time within which a thing happens, is often expressed by the ablative with in; especially (a) in connection with numerals; as, Bis in die săturum fieri; vix ter in anno nuntium audire; and (b), as in the use of intra, to denote that the event happened before the time specified had fully expired.

REM. 6. Instead of in pueritiā, ădolescentiā, jūventūte, sēnectūte, etc., in stating the age at which a person performed any action, the concretes puer, ădolescens, jūvenis, senex, etc., are commonly joined to the verb; as, Ch. Pompeius, adolescens se et patrem consilio servavit.—So, also, adjectives ending in enarius are sometimes used in stating the number of years a person has lived; as, Cicero sexagenarius.

For the ablative denoting duration of time, see § 236.

ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 254. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Alexander Băbylone est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Intererit multum—Thēbis nūtrītus an Argis,—whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Nātus Tībure vel Gabiis. Id.

REMARK 1. 'In the country' is expressed by rure, or more commonly by ruri, without a preposition; as, Pater filium ruri habiture jussit. Cic. With an adjective only rure is used; as, Interdum nugaris rure păterno. Hor. Cf. § 221, N.

REM. 2. (a.) The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of

- towns; as, In Philippis quidam nunciarit. Suet.

 (b.) Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also domus and humus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative without in. See § 221, R. 2 and R. 3.—So, also, terra marique, by land and by with an adjective and having the meaning of 'occasion'; as, Hoc löco, multis locis, etc.—Libro joined with an adjective, as hoc, primo, etc., is used without in when the whole book is meant, and with in when only a portion is referred to. An ablative of place joined with tōto, tōtā, tōtis, is generally used without in; as, Urbe tōtā gēmītus jīt. Cic. Tōtā Asiā vāgātur. Id. Tōto māri. Id. But in such cases in is sometimes used. So cunctā Asiā. Liv.
- REM. 3. Before the names of countries, of nations used for those of countries, and of all other places in which any thing is said to be or to be done, except those of towns, and excepting also the phrases specified in the first and second those of towns, and excepting also the phrases specified in the first and second remarks, the preposition in its commonly used; as, Iphicrátes in Thrāciā vivit, Chares in Sīgāo. Nep. Rūre ego vīventem, tu dicis in urbe beātum. Hor. Aio hoc fieri in Græciā. Plaut. In Bactriānis Sogdiānisque urbes condidit. Lūcus in urbe fuit. Virg. But it is sometimes omitted by writers of every class and period; as, Mīlites stātīvis castris hābēbat. Sall. Magnis in laudībus fuit tōtā Græciā. Nep. Popūli sensus maxime theātro et spectācūlis perspectus est. Cic. Pompeius se oppido tēnet. Id. In the poets and later prose writers this omiscion is of year frequent tecquerance not only with pages of towns but with sion is of very frequent occurrence not only with names of towns but with ablatives of all nouns answering to the question, where? as, Navita puppe sĕdens. Ovid. Ibam forte Viā Sacrā. Hor. Silvisque agrisque viisçue corpora fæda jäcent. Ovid. Mĕdio alveo concursum est. Liv.—Föris, out at the door, abroad, is properly an ablative of place; as, Foris canat. Cic. Cf. § 237, R. 5, (c.)
- § 255. 1. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town whence the motion proceeds, is put in the ablative, without a preposition; as,

§ 256.

Brundisio profecti sumus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Dionysius tyrannus Syracūsis expulsus Corinthi pueros docebat. Id. Demaratus Tarquanios Corintho fugit. Id. Accepi tuas literas datas Placentia. Id. Interim Romā per litéras certior fit; scil. datas or missas. Sall. J. 82. So, also, after a verbal noun; as, Narbone réditus. Cic.

REMARK 1. The ablatives domo, humo, and rure or ruri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds;

Domo profectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit humo juvenis, The youth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rare hue advant. Ter. Si rūri võniet. Id. Virgil uses domo with unde; as, Qui genus? unde domo? and Livy, instead of domo abesse, has esse ab domo. With an adjective, rūre, and not rūri, must be used.

REM. 2. With names of towns and dömus and hümus, when answering the question 'whence?' ab, ex, or de, is sometimes used; as, Ab Alexandria profectus. Cic. Ex dómo. Id. De viliféra vēnisse Viennā. Mart. Ab hūmo. Virg.

REM. 3. (a.) With other names of places whence motion proceeds, ab, ex, or de, is commonly expressed; as, Me a portu præmisit. Plaut. Ex Asia transis in European. Curt. Ex castris proficiscentur. Cas. De Pomptino, scil. prædio. Cic.—So, also, before names of nations used for those of countries; as, Ex Mēdis ad adversāriorum hībernācula pervēnit. Nep.

(b.) But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litera Măcedonia allata. Liv. Clussis Cypro advinit. Curt. Cessissent loco. Liv. Ni cite vicis et castellis proximis subventum foret. Id. He sacris, properate sacris, laurumque capillis ponte. Ovid. Finious omnes prositive suis. Virg. Advolvunt inquites montibus ornos. Id. This omission of the preposition is most common in the poets and later prose writers.

2. The place by, through, or over which, after verbs of motion, commonly follows per; but frequently also it is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Per Thēbas iter fécit. Nep. Exercitum vădo transdacit. Cæs. His pontibus pābālātum mittēbat. Id. Tribāni mīlitum portā Collīnā urbem intrāvēre sub signis, mediaque urbe agmine in Aventinum pergunt. Liv. Legiones Penninis Cottianisque Aspibus, pars monte Graio, trādūcuntur. Tac. Equites viā breviore præmīsi. Cic.

ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

- § 256. 1. When two objects are compared by means of the comparative degree, a conjunction, as quam, atque, etc., is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted.
- 2. The comparative degree, when quam is omitted, is followed by the ablative of that with which the comparison is made; as,

Nihil est virtute formosius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio cōmior? Who is more courteous than C. Lælius? Id.

REMARK 1. The person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, is usually put in the ablative; as,

Sidere pulchrior ille est, tu levior cortice. Hor. Vilius argentum est auro, virtūtibus aurum. Id. Tullus Hostilius ferocior Romulo fuit. Liv. Lacrima nihil citius arescit. Cic. Quid magis est durum saxo, quid mollius unda? Ovid. Hoc nomo fuit minus ineptus. Ter. Albanum, Mecenas, sive Falernum te magis appositis delectat. Hor.

REM. 2. An object with which a person or thing addressed is compared, is also put in the ablative; as, O fons Bandusiae splendidior vitro! Hor.

REM. 3. Sometimes the person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, instead of following it in the ablative, is connected with it by quam, and it is then put in the same case as the subject, whether in the nominative or the accusative; as, Oratio quam habitus fuit maserabilior. Cic. Affirmo nullam esse laudem ampliorem quam cam. Id. So, also, when an ablative in the case absolute takes the place of the subject; as, Eodem (scil. duce) plūra, quam gregārio mīlite, tolerante. Tac.

REM. 4. If the person or thing which is compared with any object is neither the subject of the sentence nor the person addressed, quam is commonly used, and the object which follows it is then put in the nominative with sum, and sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the object with which it is compared; as, Meliōnem, quam ego sum, suppōno tibi. Plaut. Ego hōmīnem callidiorem vīdi nēminem quam Phormiōnem. Ter. Adventus hostium fuit agris, quam urbi terribūlior. Liv. Omnes fontes æstāte, quam hieme, sun gēlīdiores. Plin. Thēmistociis nōmen, quam Sŏlonis, est illustrius. Cic.—The following proportional illustrates beth the propolition contents. example illustrates both the preceding constructions: - Ut tibi multo mājori, quam Africanus fuit, me non multo minorem quam Lælium făcile et în republică et in ămīcītiā adjunctum esse pătiāre. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) The person or thing with which the object of an active verb is compared, though usually connected with it by quam, (R. 4,) is sometimes put in the ablative, especially in the poets, and frequently also even in prose, if the object is a pronoun, particularly a relative pronoun; as, Attālo, quo grāviōrem inimīcum non hābui, sōrōrem dēdit, He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, etc. Curt. Hoc nihil grātius fācēre pōtes. Cic. Causam ēnim suscēpisti antiquiōrem mēmoriā tuā. Id. Exēģi monumentum ære pērennius. Hor. Cur otīvum sanguine vipērino cautius vitut? Id. Quid prius dīcam solītis pārentis laudībus? Id. Mājōra viribus audes. Virg. Nulkam sacrā vite prius sēvēris arbōrem. Hor. Nulka his malkem tūdes exertisses. Id. 4.178. 3.

Nullos his mallem lūdos spectasse. Id. § 178, 3.

(b.) The ablative instead of quam is never used with any other oblique case except the accusative, but quam is sometimes found, even where the ablative might have been used; as, Mělior tūtiorque est certa pax quam spērāta victoria. Liv. After quam, if the verb cannot be supplied from the preceding sentence, est, fuit, etc., must be added; as, Hac verba sunt M. Varronis, quam fuit Claudius, doctioris. Gell. Drūsum Germanicum minorem natu, quam ipse erat, frātrem āmīsit. Sen.

REM. 6. (a.) Minus, plus, and amplius with numerals, and with other words denoting a certain measure or a certain portion of a thing, are used either with or without quam, generally as indeclinable words, without influence upon the construction, but merely to modify the number; as, Non plus quam quatuor millia effagerunt, not effagit. Liv. Pictores antiqui non sunt asi plus quam quatuor coloribus, not pluribus. Cic.

(b.) Quam is frequently omitted with all cases; as, Minus duo millia höminum ex tanto exercitu effügerunt. Liv. Milites Römüni sæpe plus dimidiāti mensis cibāria ferebant. Čic. Quum plus annum æger fuisset. Liv. Sēdēcim non

amplius eo anno legionibus defensum imperium est. Id.

- (c.) These comparatives, as in the preceding example, are sometimes inserted between the numeral and its substantive, and sometimes, when joined with a negative, they follow both, as a sort of apposition; as, Quinque millia armātōrum, non amplius, relictum erat præsidium,—a garrison of five thousand soldiers, not more. Liv. So, also, longius; Casar certior est factus, magnas Gallorum copias non longius millia passuum octo ab hibernis suis abfuisse. Cæs. See § 236.
- (d.) The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives; as, Dies trăginta aut plus eo in năvi fui. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cic. Horă amplius moliebantur. Id. Ne longius triduo ab castris absit. Cæs. Apud Suevos non longius anno remanere uno in loco incolendi causa licet. Id. Quum initio non amplius duobus millibus habuisset. Sall.

REM. 7. Quam is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a change of case, after mājor, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsides ne minores octonum dēnum annorum neu mājores quīnum quādrāgēnum,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-five years of age. Liv. Ex urbāno exercitu, qui minores quinque et triginta annis erant, in naves impositi sunt. The genitive and ablative, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to § 211, R. 6. Longius ab urbe mille passuum. Liv. Annos nātas māgis quādrāginta. Cic.

REM. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or a clause, quam is always expressed; as, Nihil est in dicendo mājus quam ut făveat orātori audītor. Cic.

REM. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,—as opinione, spe, exspeciātione, fide, -dicto, solito, -aquo, crēdibili, necessārio, vero, and justo, -aro used in a peculiar manner in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opīnione cělěrius ventūrus esse dīcitur,—sooner than is expected. Čæs. Dicto citius tămida æquora plācat, Quicker than the word was spoken. Virg. Injūrias grāvius æquo hābēre. Sall.

(a.) These ablatives supply the place of a clause; thus, grānius æquo is equivalent to grānius quam quod æquum est. They are often omitted; as, Thémistocles liberius vivēbut, scil. æquo. Nep. In such cases, the comparative may be translated by the positive degree, with too, quite, or rather, as in the above example—'He lived too freely,' or 'rather freely.' Völuptus quum mājor est atque longior, omne ānīmi limen esstinguit,—when it is too great, and of too long continuance. Cic. So tristior, scil. solito, rather sad.

(b.) The English word 'still,' joined with comparatives, is expressed by étiam or vel, and only in later prose writers by ådhuc; as, Ut in corporibus magnæ dissimilitudines sunt, sic in animis exsistunt majores etiam varietates. Cic.

REM. 10. (a.) With inferior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nullā arte cuiquam inferior. Sall. The ablative is also found; as, Ut hūmānos cāsus virtūte inferiores pūtes. Cic. But usually inferior is followed by quam; as, Timotheus belli laude non inferior fuit, quam pāter. Cic.

Tradia non inférior, quam qui unquam fuerunt amplissimi. Id.

(b.) Qualis, 'such as,' with a comparative, occurs poetically instead of the relative pronoun in the ablative; as, Nardo pérunctum, qualle non perfectius new laborarint mânus; instead of quo. Hor. Epod. 5, 59. Anima quales nêque candidiores terra tülü; for quibus. Id. Sat. 1, 5, 41.

REM. 11. Quam pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Prælium atrōcius quam pro numero pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was proportionate to the number of the combatants. Liv. Minor, quam pro tumultu, cædes. Tac.

REM. 12. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are put in the comparative; as, Triumphus clarior quam gratior, A triumph more famous than acceptable. Liv. Fortius quam felicius bellum yesserunt. So, also, when the comparative is formed by means of magis; as, Magis audacter guam parate ad dicendum vénicoat. Cic.—Tacitus uses the positive in one part of the proposition; as, Spēciem excelsæ gloriæ věhěmentius quam caute appētēbat; or even in both; as, Clāris mājoribus quam větustis.

Rem. 13. (a.) Potius and magis are sometimes joined pleonastically with malle and præstare, and also with comparatives; as, Ab omnibus se desertos potius quam abs te defensos esse mālunt. Cic. Qui magis vere vincere quam diu impērāre mālit. Liv. Ut ēmori potius quam servīre præstaret. Cic. Mihi quæris fūga potius quam ulla provincia esset optātior. Id. Quis mūgis queat esse beātior? Virg.

(b.) So, also, the prepositions præ, ante, præter, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, Unus precedents fortior exsurgit, Apul. Scillers ante alios immanior omnes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative; as, Ante alios carissimus. Nep. As these prepositions, when joined with the positive, denote comparison, they seem in such examples to be redundant. See § 127. Rem. 14. Alius is sometimes in poetry treated as a comparative, and construed with the ablative instead of atque with the nominative or accusative; as, Nève pûtes álium săpiente běnōque beātum. Hor. Alius Lýsippo. Id. But compare § 251, N.

REM. 15. By the poets ac and atque are sometimes used instead of quam after comparatives; as, Quanto constantior idem in vitiis, tanto lévius miser ac prior ille, qui, etc. Hor. Arctius atque hédérā prôcêra adstringitur ilex. Id.

Rem. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative:—

- (1.) Of substantives; as, Minor uno mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquipede quam tu longior, Taller than you by a foot and a half. Plaut. Hibernia dimidio minor quam Britannia. Cæs. Dimidio minoris constâbit, It will cost less by half. Cic. Quam molestum est uno digito plus hâbère!....to have one finger more, i. e. than we have, to have six fingers. Id.—but the expression is ambiguous, as it might mean 'to have more than one finger.' Supérat capite et cervicibus altis. Virg.
- (2.) Of neuter adjectives of quantity and neuter pronouns, in the singular number. Such are tanto, quanto, quo, eo, hoc, multo, parvo, paulo, nimio, diquanto, tantūlo, altēro tanto (twice as much); as, Multo doctior es patre, Thou art (by) much more learned than thy father. The relative and demonstrative words, quanto—tanto, quo—eo, or quo—hoc, signifying 'by how much—by so much,' are often to be translated by an emphatic the; as, Quanto sūmus sūpėri- ōres, tanto nos submissius gėrāmus, The more eminent we are, the more lumbly let us conduct ourselves: lit. by how much—by so much—. Cic. Eo grāvior est dōlor, quo culpa est mājor. Id. But the relative word generally precedes the demonstrative; as, Quo difficilius, hoc praculārius. Id. Poetically, also, quam māgis—tam māgis are used instead of quanto māgis—tanto māgis. Virg. £n. 7, 787: and quam māgis—tanto māgis. Lucr. 6, 459.—Her multo fācilius,—much easier. Cæs. Parvo brēvius, A little shorter. Plin. Eo māgis, The more. Cic. Eo mīnus. Id. Istoc māgis vēpūlibīs, So much the more. Plaut. Vīa altēro tanto longior,—as long again. Nep. Multo id maxīmum fuit. Liv.

(3.) The ablative of degree is joined not only with comparatives but with verbs which contain the idea of comparison; as, melo, praeto, supero, excello, anticello, anticello, anticello, and others compounded with ante; and also with ante and post, in the sense of 'earlier' and 'later'; as, Multo præstat. Sall. Post paulo, A little after. Id. Multo ante lacis adventum, Long before—. Id. Multis partibus is equivalent to multo; as, Número multis partibus esset inférior. Cæs.

Note. The accusatives multum, tantum, quantum, and ăliquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem ăvidior. Ter. Multum improbiăres sunt. Plaut. Quantum domo inférior, tantum gloriă săpérior êvâsit. Val. Max. Cf. § 232, (3.)—So longe, 'far,' is frequently used for multo; as, Longe mélior. Virg. Longe et multum antécellère. Cic. So, pars pědis sesqui mējor,—longer by one half. Id.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

§ 257. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, called *absolute*, to denote the time, cause, means, or concomitant of an action, or the condition on which it depends; as,

Pāthāgōras, Tarquinio regnante, in Itāliam vēnit, Pythagoras came into Italy, in the reign of Tarquin. Cic. Lūpus, stīmūlante fame, captat ŏvīle, Hunger inciting, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Mīlītes, pēcore e longinquiorībus vieis ādacto, extrēmam fāmem sustentābant. Cæs. Hac ōrātione hābītā, concilium dimīsit. Id. Galli, re cognītā, obsidionem rēlinquunt. Id. Virtūte exceptā, nihil āmicītiā prastābītus pūtētis, Cic.

Note 1. The Latin ablative absolute may be expressed in English by a similar construction, but it is commonly better to translate it by a clause connected by when, since, while, although, after, as, etc., or by a verbal substantive; as, Te adjuvante, With thy assistance. Non-nisi te adjuvante, Only with thy assistance, or not without thy assistance. Te non adjuvante, Without thy assistance. Of. § 274, R. 5, (c.)

REMARK 1. This construction is an abridged form of expression, equivalent to a dependent clause connected by quum, si, etsi, quamquam, quamvis, etc.

Thus, for Tarquinio regnante, the expression dum Tarquinius regnābat might be used; for hac ōrātiōne hābitā;—quum hanc ōrātiōnem hābuisset, or quum hæc ōrātio hābita esset,—concilium dimisit. The ablative absolute may always be resolved into a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predicate.

Rem. 2. This construction is common only with present and perfect participles. Instances of its use with participles in *rus* and *dus* are comparatively rare; as,

Cæsăre ventūro, Phosphöre, redde diem. Mart. Irruptūris tam infestis nātionībus. Liv. Quum concio plausum, meo nomine recitando, dēdisset,—when my name was pronounced. Cic. Quum immolandā Iphīgēnīā tristis Culchas esset. Id. Quis est ēnim, qui, nullis officii præceptis trādendis, philosophum se audeat dīcēre—without propounding any rules of duty. Cic. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (c.) and R. 9.

- REM. 3. (a.) A noun is put in the ablative absolute, only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the leading clause. Cf. § 274, 3, (a.)
- (b.) Yet a few examples occur of a deviation from this principle, especially with a substantive pronoun referring to some word in the leading clause; as, Se audiente, scribit Thūcydides. Cic. Lěgio ex castris Varrōnis, adstante et inspectante ipso, signa sustúlit. Cæs. Me dūce, ad hunc vôti fūnem, me milite, vēni. Ovid. So M. Porcius Cáto, vīvo quóque Scīpione, allātrāre ējus magnitūdinem sõlitus ĕrat. Liv.
- Note 2. Two participles must not be put together in the ablative absolute agreeing with the same noun. Thus, we may say Porcia sæpe marītum cogitantem invenērat, but not, Porcia mărīto cōgītante invento.
- Note 3. Instead of the ablative absolute denoting a cause, an accusative with δb or propter occurs in Livy and in later writers; as, $\tilde{C}an\delta pum$ condidère Spartani, ob sépultum illie rectörem nāvis Cānōpum. Tac. Décemvir libros Sibyllinos inspicére jussi sunt propter territos hômines nāvis prōālgiis. Liv.
- REM. 4. The ablative absolute serves to mark the time of an action, by reference to that of another action. If the present participle is used, the time of the action expressed by the participle, is the same as that of the principal verb. The perfect participle and the future in rus, denote respectively an action as prior or subsequent to that expressed by the principal verb.

Thus in the preceding examples—Pýthắgởras, Tarquǐnio regnante, in Itáliam vềnit, Pythagoras came into Italy during the reign of Tarquinius. Galli, re cognītā, obsidiönem rēlinquunt, The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege. So, Rex ápum non nisi migrātūro exāmīne föras prōcēdit, The king-bee does not go abroad, except when a swarm is about to emigrate. Plin.

- Note 4. Non prius quam, non nisi, ut, vėlut, and tamquam, are sometimes joined with the participle; as. Tibėrius excessum Augusti non prius pālam fēcit, quam Agrippā jūvēne interempto, —not until. Suet. Galli læti, ut explorāta victoriā, ad castra Rōmānōrum pergunt. Cæs. Antiochus, tamquam non transitūris in Asiam Rōmānis, etc. Liv.
- Rem. 5. (a.) The construction of the ablative absolute with the perfect passive participle, arises frequently from the want of a participle of that tense in the active voice.

Thus, for Cæsar, having sent forward the cavalry, was following with all his forces,' we find, 'Cæsar, ĕquǐtātu præmisso, subsĕquĕbātur omnībus cōpiis.'

- (b.) As the perfect participle in Latin may be used for both the perfect active and the perfect passive participles in English, its meaning can, in many instances, be determined only by the connection, since the agent with a or ab is generally not expressed with this participle in the ablative absolute, as it is with other parts of the passive voice. Thus, Casar, his dictis, contilum diminit, might be rendered, 'Casar, having said this, or this having been said (by some other person), dismissed the assembly.'
- (c.) As the perfect participles of deponent verbs correspond to perfect active participles in English, no such necessity exists for the use of the ablative absolute with them; as, Casar, has locative, concilium dimisit. In the following example, both constructions are united: Itaque...agros Remõrum dēpŏpūlāti, omnibus vīcīs, adificiisque incensis. Cass.
- Rem. 6. The perfect participles of neuter deponent verbs, and some also of active deponents, which admit of both an active and a passive sense, are used in the ablative absolute; as, Ortā lāce. Cæs. Vel exstincto vel ēlapso anīmo, nullum rēsīdēre sensum. Cic. Tam multis gloriam ējus adeptis. Plin. Lūtēras ad exercitus, tamquam adepto princīpātu, mīsīt. Tac.
- REM. 7. (a.) As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause, are put in the ablative absolute without a participle; as,
- Quid, adolescentulo duce, efficere possent, What they could do under the guidance of a youth. Cas. Me suasore atque impulsore, hoc factum, By my advice and instigation. Plaut. Hannibāle vico, While Hannibal was living. Nep. Invitā Minervā, in opposition to one's genius. Cic. Celo sérêno, when the weather is clear. Virg. Me ignāro, without my knowledge. Cic. With names of office, the concrete noun is commonly used in the ablative absolute, rather than the corresponding abstract with in to denote the time of an event; as, Rōmam vēnit Mārio consile, He came to Rome in the consulship of Marius. Cic.
- (b.) The nouns so used as predicates are by some grammarians considered as supplying the place of participles by expressing in themselves the action of a verb. Such are dux, comes, adjutor and adjutorx, auctor, testis, jūdex, interpres, māgister and māgistra, praceptor and praceptrix; as, dūce nātūrā, in the sense of dūcente nātūrā, under the guidance of nature; jūdice Pōtýhio, according to the judgment of Polybius.
- Rem. 8. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nondum comperto quam in régionem vēnisset rex. Liv. Audito vēnisse nuncium. Tac Vāle dicto. Ovid. This construction, however, is confined to a few participles; as, audito, cognito, comperto, explorato, despērāto, nunciāto, dicto, ēdicto. But the place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neuter adjective in the ablative; as, Incerto præ těnebris quid pětérent. Liv. Cf. R. 7, (a.) Haud cuiquam dabio quin hostium essent. Id. Juata pěriculoso vēra an ficta promēret. Tac.
- REM. 9. (1.) The noun in the ablative, like the subject nominative, is sometimes wanting; (a) when it is contained in a preceding clause; as, Atticus Serviliam, Brūti mātrem, non minus post mortem ējus, quam florente, coluit, scil. eo,

i. e. Brūto. Nep. (b) When it is the general word for person or persons followed by a descriptive relative clause; as, Hannibal Ibērum cōpias trājēcit, præmissis, qui Alpium transitus spēcūlārentur. Liv. (c) When the participle in the neuter singular corresponds to the impersonal construction of neuter verbs in the passive voice; as, In amnis transgressu, multum certato, Bardesanes vīcit. Tac. Mihi, errāto, nulla vēnia, recte facto, exīgua laus proponitur. Cic. Quum, nondum pālam facto, vīvi mortuīque promiscue complorārentur. Liv. Nam jam atāte eā sum, ut non siet, peccāto, nu ignosci æquum; i. e. si peccātum fuĕrit. Ter. Cf \$274, P.5. (1). Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.)

(2.) So in descriptions of the weather; as, Tranquillo, scil. mări, the sea being tranquil. Liv. Sĕrēno, scil. cœlo, the sky being clear. Id. Arānei sĕrēno texunt, nūbilo texunt,—in clear and in cloudy weather. Plin. Substantives when used thus are to be considered as ablatives of time; as, Comitis, lūdis, Circensībus. Suetonius has used proscriptione in the sense of 'during the proscription.' So pūce et Principe. Tac. Impěrio populi Români. Cæs.

REM. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Cusar, quamquam obsidione Massiliae retardante, brevi tamen omnia săbēgit. Suet. Decemviri non ante, quam perlatis legibus, deposituros imperium esse aiebant. Liv.

REM. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of naming, choosing, etc. § 210, (3.); as, Hasdrubale imperatore suffecto. Liv.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

Tenses, in regard to their connection, are divided into two classes—principal and historical.

A. The principal tenses are, the present, the perfect definite,

and the two futures.

- B. The historical, which are likewise called the preterite tenses (§ 145, N. 2.), are the imperfect, the historical perfect, and the pluperfect.
- I. In the connection of leading and dependent clauses, only tenses of the same class can, in general, be united with each other. Hence:-
- 1. A principal tense is followed by the present and perfect definite, and by the periphrastic form with sim. And:
- 2. A preterite tense is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect, and by the periphrastic form with essem.

Note. The periphrastic forms in each class supply the want of subjunctive futures in the regular conjugation.

The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules:-

- (a.) In the first class. Scio quid ăgas. Scio quid ēgēris. Scio quid actūrus sis.—Audīri quid ăgas, I have heard what you are doing. Audīri quid ēgēris. Audīri quid actūrus sis.—Audīam quid ăgas, etc.—Audīvēro quid āgas, etc.
- (b.) În the second class. Sciébum quid ăyêres. Sciébam quid egisses. Sciébam quid actūrus esses.—Audivi quid ăyêres, I heard what you were doing. Audivi quid ēgisses. Audīvi quid actūrus esses.—Audīveram quid ageres, etc.

The following may serve as additional examples in the first class; viz. of principal tenses depending on,

(1.) The Present; as, Non sum ita hebes, ut istuc dicam. Cic. Quantum dolorem acceperim, tu existimāre potes. Id. Nec dubito quin reditus ejus reipūbliew sălūtāris futurus sit. Id.

- (2) The Perfect Definite; as, Sătis provisum est, ut ne quid ăgëre possint. Id. Quis măsicis, quis huic stădio literarum se dedidit, quin omnem illarum artium rim comprehenderit. Id. Dēfectiones solis prædictæ sunt, quæ, quantæ, quando future sint. Id.
- (3.) The Futures; as, Sic făcillime, quanta ōrātōrum sit, semperque fuĕrit paucitas, jūdīcābit. Id. Ad quos dies redītūrus sim, scrībam ad te. Id. Si sciĕris aspīdem lātēre uspiam, et velle ălīquem imprādentem săper eam assīdēre, cājus mors tibi ēmōlūmentum factūra sit, improbe fēcĕris, nīsi monuĕris, ne assīdeat. Id.

The following, also, are additional examples in the second class, viz. of preterite tenses depending on,

- (1.) The Imperfect; as, Unum illud extimescēbam, ne quid turpiter făcĕrem, vel jam effēcissem. Cic. Non ĕnim dŭbĭtābam, quin eas libenter lectúrus esses. Id.
- (2.) The Historical Perfect; as, Vēni in ējus villam ut libros inde promerem. Id. Hac quam essent nuntiāta, Vālērius classem extemplo ad ostium flūmīnis duxit. Liv.
- (3.) The Pluperfect; as, Pávor cēpěrat milites, ne mortiférum esset vulnus. Liv. Ego ex ipso audiéram, quam a te libéraliter esset tractatus. Cic. Non sátis mihi constitěrat, cum álīquāne ănīmi mei mölestiā, an pŏtius libenter te Athēnis vīsūrus essem. Id.
- REMARK 1. (a.) When the present is used in narration for the historical perfect, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, $L\hat{e}g\bar{a}tos$ mittunt, ut $p\bar{a}cem$ impetrarent. Cæs.
- (b.) The present is also sometimes followed by the perfect subjunctive in its historical sense; as, Pandite nunc Hělicôna, dew, cantusque movēte, Qui bello exciti rêges, que quemque sécüte Complerint campos acies. Virg.
- REM. 2. The perfect definite is often followed by the imperfect, even when a present action or state is spoken of, if it is possible to conceive of it in its progress, and not merely in its conclusion or result; and especially when the agent had an intention accompanying him from the beginning to the end of the action; as, Fēci hoc, ut intelligeres, I have done this that you might understand; i. e. such was my intention from the beginning. Sunt philosophi et fuerrunt, qui omnīno nullam hābēre censērent hūmānārum rerum procūrātionem deos. Cic.
- REM. 3. (a.) The historical perfect is not regularly followed by the perfect subjunctive, as the latter is not, in general, used in reference to past action indefinite.
- (b.) These tenses are, however, sometimes used in connection, in the narrative of a past event, especially in Livy and Cornelius Nepos; as, Factum est, ut plus quam collēyæ Milliādes văluērit. Nep.
- (c.) The imperfect and perfect are even found together after the historical perfect, when one action is represented as permanent or repeated, and the other simply as a fact; as, Adeo nihil miseriti sunt, ut incursiones facerent et Veios in animo habuerint oppugnare. Liv.
- (d.) The historical perfect may even be followed by the present, when a general truth is to be expressed, and not merely one which is valid for the time indicated by the leading verb; as, Antiocho pācem pētenti ad priores conditiones nihil additum, Africāno pradicante, nēque Romānis, si vincantur, ānīmos minui, nēque, si vincant, sēcundis rēbus insolescēre. Just.
- REM. 4. (a.) As present infinitives and present participles depend for their time upon the verbs with which they are connected, they are followed by such tenses as those verbs may require; as, Apelles pictores quoque eos peccare dicobat, qui non sentirent, quid esset satis. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te lèciter accusans in eo, quod de me cito credidisses. Id.

- (b.) In like manner the tense of the subjunctive following the infinitive future is determined by the verb on which such infinitive depends; as, Sol Phaëthouti filio factūrum se esse dixit quicquid optasset. Cic.
- REM. 5. (a.) The perfect infinitive follows the general rule, and takes after it a principal or a preterite tense, according as it is used in the definite or in the historical sense; as, Arbitrāmur nos ea præstītisse, quæ rātio et doctrīna præscripsērit. Cic. Est quod gaudeas te in ista loca vēnisse, ŭbi ăliquid săpēre vidērēre. Id.
- (b.) But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, Ita mihi videor et esse Deos, et quales essent sătis ostendisse. Cic.
- II. Tenses belonging to different classes may be made dependent on each other, when the sense requires it.
- (a.) Hence a present or perfect definite may follow a preterite, when the result of a past action extends to the present time; as, Ardibat autem Hortensius căpăditāte dicendi sic, ut in nullo umquam flagrantius stădium viderim; i. e. that up to this time I have never seen. Cic. And, on the other hand, a preterite may follow a present to express a continuing action in the past; as, Scitote oppidum esse in Sicilia nullum, quo in oppido non isti delecta mulier ad libidinem esset: (esset here alludes to the whole period of Verres' prætorship.) Cic.

(b.) But without violating the rule which requires similar tenses to depend upon each other, the hypothetical imperfect subjunctive, may be followed by the present or perfect subjunctive, since the imperfect subjunctive refers to the present time; as, Mēmorāre possem quibus in locis maximas hostium copias pāpūlus Rōmānus parvā mānu fūdērit. Sall. Possem here differs from possum

only by the hypothetical form of the expression.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

§ **259.** The indicative is used in every proposition in which the thing asserted is represented as a reality.

Note. Hence it is used even in the expression of conditions and suppositions with si, nisi, etsi, and ėtiamsi, when the writer, without intimating his own opinion, supposes a thing as actual, or, with nisi, makes an exception, which, only for the sake of the inference, he regards as actual; as, Mors aut plane negligenda est, si omnino exstinguit $\acute{a}mimum$, aut $\acute{e}tiam$ optanda, si $\acute{a}liquo$ eum $d\acute{e}d\ddot{u}$ cit, ibi sit f $it\ddot{u}$ tus
- REMARK 1. The several tenses have already been defined, and their usual significations have been given in the paradigms. They are, however, sometimes otherwise rendered, one tense being apparently used with the meaning of another, either in the same or in a different mood. Thus,
- (1.) (a.) The present is often used for the historical perfect in narration, see § 145, I. 3.—(b.) It is sometimes used also for the future to denote the certainty of an event, or to indicate passionate emotion. So, also, when the leading sentence contains the present imperative, si is often joined with the present instead of the future; as, dēfende si pôtes.—(c.) The present is also used for the imperfect or perfect, when it is joined with dum 'while'; as, Dum ēgo in Sīcīliā sum, nulla stātua dējecta est. Cic. It is even so used by Livy in transitions from one event to another; as, Dum in Asiā bellum gērītur, ne in Ætōlis quādem quiētæ res fuērant. But the preterites are sometimes used with dum 'while'; and dum 'as long as' is regularly joined with the imperfect.
 - (2.) (a.) The perfect, in its proper signification, i. e. as a perfect definite, denotes an act or state terminated at the present time. Thus Horace, at the close of a work, says, Exēgi monūmentum ære pērennius; and Ovid, in like circumstances, Jamque opus exēgi. So, also, Panthus in Virgil, in order to de-

note the utter ruin of Troy, exclaims, Fuīmus $Tr\bar{o}es$, fuit Ilium, i. e. we are no longer Trojans, Ilium is no more.—(b.) The perfect indefinite or historical perfect is used in relating past events, when no reference is to be made to the time of other events; as, Cesar $R\bar{u}lic\bar{o}nem$ transiit, Cesar crossed the Rubicon. (c.) As in the epistolary style the imperfect is used instead of the present, when an incomplete action is spoken of (§ 145, II. 3), so the historical perfect is in like circumstances employed instead of the present, when speaking of a completed action. With both the imperfect and perfect, when so used, however, the adverbs nunc and $\tilde{e}tiannum$ may be used instead of tunc and $\tilde{e}tiannum$.

(d.) The historical perfect is sometimes used for the pluperfect in narration; as, Sed postquam aspexi, illico cognōvi, But after I (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.—This is the usual construction after postquam or posteōquam, ibi, ibi primum, ut, ut primum, quum primum, simul, simul at, simul ac, or simul atque, all of which have the signification of 'as soon as,' and sometimes after priusquam. But when several conditions are to be expressed in past time, the pluperfect is retained after these particles; as, Idem similae se remiserat, nēque causa subērat, quāre ānimi lūbōrem perferret, luxūriōsus rēpēriebātur. Nep. So, also, postquam is joined with the pluperfect, when a definite time intervenes between events, so that there is no connection between them; as, Hannibal anno tertio, postquam dōmo prōfūgērat, cum quinque nāvībus Africam accessit. Id.—In a very few passages the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are joined with postquam.

(3.) The pluperfect sometimes occurs, where in English we use the historical perfect; as, Dixerat, et spissis noctis se condidit umbris, She (had) said, and hid herself in the thick shades of night. Virg. Sometimes, also, it is used for the historical perfect to express the rapidity with which events succeed each other; so, also, for the imperfect, to denote what had been and still was.

(4.) The future indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; as, Vălēbis, Farewell. Cic. And:—

(5.) The future perfect for the future; as, Alio bǒco de ŏrātōrum ǎnimo et in-jūriis vidēro, I shall see (have seen).... Cic. This use seems to result from viewing a future action as if already done, and intimates the rapidity with which it will be completed.

Rem. 2. When a future action is spoken of either in the future, or in the imperative, or the subjunctive used imperatively, and another future action is connected with it, the latter is expressed by the future tense, if the actions relate to the same time; as, Nātūram si sequēmur ducem, nunquam aberrābinus. Cic.; but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed; as, De Curthāgine věrēri non ante dēsīnam, quam illum excisam esse cognōvěro. Cic. In English the present is often used instead of the future perfect; as, Fāciam si pôtēro, I will do it, if I can. Ut sēmentem fēcēris, ita mētes, As you sow, so you will reap. Cic.

Rem. 3. In expressions denoting the propriety, practicability or advantage of an action not performed, the indicative of the preterites (§ 145, N. 2.) is used, where the English idiom would have led us to expect the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.

(a.) This construction occurs with the verbs operat, necesse est, debeo, convenit, possum, decet, licet, reor, puto; and with par, fus, copia, equum, justum, consentâneum, satis, satius, equius, melius, utilius, optabilius, and optimum—est, erat, etc.

(b.) In this connection the imperfect indicative expresses things which are not, but the time for which is not yet past; the historical perfect and the pluperfect indicative, things which have not been, but the time for which is past; as, Ad mortem te dūti jam prīdem ŏportēbat, i. e. thy execution was necessary and is still so; hence it ought to take place. Cic.—Longe ūtīlius fuit angustica ādītūs occipāre, It would have been much better to occupy the pass. Curt. Cūtīlina ērūpit e sēnātu triumphans gaudio, quem omnīno vīvum illinc exīre non ŏportuērat. Cic.

- (c.) In both the periphrastic conjugations, also, the preterites of the indicative have frequently the meaning of the subjunctive; as, Tam bona constanter præda tënenda fuit,—ought to have been kept. Ovid. This is more common in hypothetical sentences than in such as are independent.
- (d.) The indicative in such connections is retained, even when a hypothetical clause with the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is added, and it is here in particular that the indicative preterites of the periphrastic conjugations are employed; as, Quæ si dūbia aut prócul essent, timen omnes bōnos reipūblicæ consülēre dēcēbat. Sall. Quodsi Cn. Pompeius prīvātus esset hoc tempōre, tāmen erat mittendus. Cic.—Dēlēri tōtus exercitus pōtnit, si fūgientes persēcūti victōres essent. Liv. Quas nīsi mānūmīsisset, tormentis ētum dedendi fuērunt. Cic. Si te non invēnīssem, pērītūrus per præcipītia fui. Petr. But the subjunctive also is admissible in such cases in the periphrastic conjugations.
- Rem. 4. (1.) The preterites of the indicative are often used for the pluperfect subjunctive, in the conclusion of a conditional clause, in order to render a description more animated. They are so used,
- (a.) When the inference has already partly come to pass, and would have been completely realized, if something else had or had not occurred, whence the adverb jam is frequently added; as, Jam fāmes quam pestilentia tristior erat; in annônæ föret subrentum,—would have been worse. Liv. The same is expressed by the verb capi instead of jam; as, Britanni circumire terga vincentum cæperant, ni, etc. Tac. And without jam; Effigies Pisōnis traxerant in Gēmônias ac divellebant (would have entirely destroyed them) ni, etc. Id.
- (b.) The perfect and pluperfect are likewise used in this sense, and a thing which was never accomplished is thus, in a lively manner, described as completed; as, Et pěractum ěrat bellum sîne sanguine, si Pompeium opprřiměre Brundisii (Cæsar) põtuisset. Hor.—The imperfect indicative is rarely used, also, for the imperfect subjunctive, when this tense is found in the hypothetical clause; as, Stultum ěrat möněre, nisi fièret. Quint.—Sometimes, also, the preterites of the indicative are thus used in the condition; as, At fuèrat mělius, si te puer iste těněbat. Ovid. See § 261, R. 1.
- (2.) 'I ought' or 'I should,' is expressed by the indicative of debeo, and possum is in like manner often used for possem; as, Possum persequi multa oblectāmenta rērum rusticārum, sed, etc., I might speak of the many pleasures of husbandry, but, etc.; and it is usual in like manner to say, difficile est, longum est, infinitum est, e. g. narrāre, etc., for, 'it would be difficult,' 'it would lead too far,' 'there would be no end,' etc.
- (3.) The indicative is used in like manner after many general and relative expressions, especially after the pronouns and relative adverbs which are either doubled or have the suffix cumque; as, quisquis, quotquot, quicumque, utut, utcumque, etc., see §§ 139,5,(3.) and 191, I. R. 1, (b.); as, Quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes. Virg. Quen sors cumque dibit, lucro appone. Hor. Sed quoquo modo sées illud habet, But however that may be. Cic.—In like manner sentences connected by sive—sive commonly have the verb in the indicative, unless there is a special reason for using the subjunctive; as, Sive verum est, sive falsum, min quidem ita rénunciatum est. Later writers however use the subjunctive both with general relatives, etc., and with sive—sive.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ **260.** The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind.

NOTE. The subjunctive character of a proposition depends, not upon its substance, but upon its form. 'I believe,' 'I suppose,' are only conceptions, but my believing and supposing are stated as facts, and, of comise, are expressed by means of the indicative. When, on the other hand, I say, 'I should be-

lieve,' 'I should suppose,' the acts of believing and supposing are represented not as facts, but as mere conceptions. Hence the verb that expresses the purpose or intention for which another act is performed, is put in the subjunctive, since it expresses only a conception; as, *Edo ut* vivam, I eat that I may live. This mood takes its name from its being commonly used in *subjoined* or dependent clauses attached to the main clause of a sentence by a subordinate connective. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or in such at least as layer no obvious decades. such, at least, as have no obvious dependence.

The subjunctive, in some of its connections, is to be translated by the indicative, particularly in indirect questions, in clauses expressing a result, and after adverbs of time; as,

Rogas me quid tristis sim,-why I am sad. Tac. Stellarum tanta est multitudo, ut numerari non possint,—that they cannot be counted. Quum Casar esset in Gallia, When Cæsar was in Gaul. Cæs.

The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desire.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the subjunctive, thus used, have the significations which have been given in the paradigms, and are, in general, not limited, in regard to time, like the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus,

(1.) The present may refer either to present or future time; as, Mědiōcribus et quis ignoscas vitiis teneor, I am subject to moderate faults, and such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Casăre ut det sibi veniam, He begs of Casar that he

would give him leave. Cæs.

(2.) The imperfect may relate either to past, present, or future time; as Si fāta fuissent ut cădērem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg. Si possem, sănior essem, I would be wiser, if I could. Ovid. Cētēros răpērem et prosternērem. The rest I would seize and prostrate. Ter.

(3.) The perfect subjunctive has always a reference to present time, and is equivalent to the indicative present or perfect definite; as, Errarim fortasse, Perhaps I may have erred. Plin.—When it has a future signification it is not to be accounted a perfect, but the subjunctive of the future perfect. See Rem. 4 and 7, (1.) But compare § 258, R. 1, (b.) and R. 3, (b.)

(4.) The pluperfect subjunctive relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usually future with respect to some past time mentioned in connection with it; as, Id responderunt se facturos esse, quum ille vento Aquilone

venisset Lemnum.... when he should have come.... Nep.

REM. 2. The imperfects veilem, nollem, and mallem, in the first person, express a wish, the non-reality and impossibility of which are known; as, veilem, I should have wished.—In the second person, where it implies an indefinite person, and also in the third when the subject is an indefinite person, the imperfect subjunctive is used in the sense of the pluperfect, and the condition is to be supplied by the mind. This is the case especially with the verbs, dieco. puto, arbitror, credo; also with video, cerno, and discerno; as, Mastique (crederes victos) redeunt in castra, -one might have thought that they were defeated. Liv. Pécunice an fame minus parcéret, haud facile discernéres. Sall. Qui videret équum Trojanum introductum, urbem captam diceret. Cic. Quis umquam crederet? Id. Quis putaret? Id.—The imperfect subjunctive is frequently used, also, for the pluperfect in interrogative expressions; as, Socrates quum rogaretur cujātem se esse diceret, Mundanum, inquit. Id. Quod si quis deus diceret, numquam pătārem me in Acădēmiā tamquam philosophum dispătătūrum, If any god had said.... I never should have supposed. Cic.

REM. 3. The subjunctive in all its tenses may denote a supposition or concession; as, Vendat ædes rir bönus, Suppose an honest man is selling a house. Cic. Dixčrit Epicūrus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id. Vērum anceps pugnæ fuērat fortūna.—Fuisset, Grant that it might have been. Virg. Mālus cīvis Cn. Carbo fuit. Fuērit āliis, He may have been to others.

Cic. This concessive subjunctive is equivalent to esto ut.

Rem. 4. The present and perfect subjunctive are used in independent propositions to soften an assertion. When so used, they do not differ essentially from the present and future indicative; as, Forsitum quaratis, You may perhaps ask. Vėlim sic existimes, I would wish you to think so. Nėmo istud tibi concedat, or concesserit, No one will grant you that. Hoe sine ulia dibitatione confirmativerim, ibiquentiam rem esse omnium difficillimam, This I will unlesitatingly affirm. Cic. Nil ėgo contūlerim jūcundo sānus ámīco. Hor. The form which is called the perfect subjunctive, when thus used for the future, seems to be rather the subjunctive of the future perfect: see Rem. 7, (1.) Võlo and its compounds are often so used in the present; as, Vėlim obvias mihi litėras crēbro mittas, I wish that you would frequently send, etc. Cic. The perfect subjunctive is also rarely used in the sense of a softened perfect indicative; as, Forsitan tēmēre fēcerim, I may have acted inconsiderately.

Rem. 5. The subjunctive is used in all its tenses, in independent sentences, to express a doubtful question implying a negative answer; as, Quo eam? Whither shall I go? Quo viein? Whither should I go? Quo viein? Whither was I to have gone? Quo vissem? Whither should I have gone? The answer implied in all these cases is, 'nowhere.' So, Quis dubitet quin in virtute divitice sint? Who can doubt that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam numen Junonis adoret prætërea? Virg. Quidni, inquit, mëminërim? Cic. Quis vellet tanti nuntius esse mäli? Ovid.

REM. 6. The present subjunctive is often used to express a wish, an exhortation, asseveration, request, command, or permission; as,

Möriar, si, etc. May I die, if, etc. Cic. Péream, si non, etc. May I perish, if, etc. Ovid. So, Ne sim sadvus. Cic. In média arma ruāmus, Let us rush... Virg. Ne me attingas, scéleste l Do not touch me, villain! Ter. Făciat quod lăbet, Let him do what he pleases. Id. The perfect is often so used; as, Ipse vidērit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Quam id recte făciam, vidêrint săpientes. Id. Meminerimus, etiam adversus infimos justitiam esse servandam. Id. Nihil incommodo văletudinis tuc feceris. Id. Emas, non quod opus est, sed quod necesse est. Sen. Dönis impii ne placăre audeant deos; Plătonem audiant. Cic. Nătūram expellas furca, tâmen usque récurret. Hor.

- (a.) The examples show that the present subjunctive, in the first person singular, is used in asseverations; in the first person plural, in requests and exhortations; in the second and third persons of the present and sometimes of the perfect, in commands and permissions, thus supplying the place of the imperative, especially when the person is indefinite.
- (b.) With these subjunctives, as with the imperative, the negative is usually not non but ne; as, ne dicas; ne dicat; ne dixeris. So, also, ne fuerit, for licet ne fuerit.
- (c.) The subjunctive for the imperative occurs most frequently in the third person. In the second person it is used principally with ne; as, ne dicas. In the latter case the perfect very frequently takes the place of the present; as, ne dixeris. The subjunctive is also used in the second person, instead of the imperative, when the person is indefinite.
- (d.) In precepts relating to past time, the imperfect and pluperfect, also, are used for the imperative; as, Forsitan non nemo vir fortis dixerit, restitisses, mortem pugnans oppetisses,—you should have resisted. Cic.
- REM. 7. In the regular paradigms of the verb, no future subjunctive was exhibited either in the active or passive voice.
- (1.) When the expression of futurity is contained in another part of the sentence, the future of the subjunctive is supplied by the other tenses of that mood, viz. the future subjunctive by the present and imperfect, and the future perfect by the perfect and pluperfect. Which of these four tenses is to be used depends on the leading verb and on the completeness or incompleteness of the action to be expressed. The perfect subjunctive appears to be also the subjunctive of the future perfect, and might not improperly be so called; as,

Tantum moneo, hoc tempus si āmīsēris, te esse nullum umquam māgis idoneum rēpertūrum, I only warn you, that, if you should lose this opportunity, you will never find one more convenient. Cic.

- (2.) If no other future is contained in the sentence, the place of the future subjunctive active is supplied by the participle in rus, with sim and essem; so, Non dibitat quin brêvi Trōja sit pērtūra, He does not doubt that Troy will soon be destroyed. Cic. In hypothetical sentences the form with fuërim takes the place of a pluperfect subjunctive; as, Quis ēmin dibitat, quin, si Sāguntīnis impigre tiltssēmus ppem, tōtum in Hispāniam āversūri bellum fuērimus. Liv. The form in fuissem occurs also, but more rarely; as, Appāruit, quantam excitatūra molem vēra fuisset clādes, quum, etc. See Periphrastic Conjugation, § 162, 14.
- (3.) The future subjunctive passive is supplied, not by the participle in dus, but by future sit or esset, with ut and the present or imperiect of the subjunctive; as, Non dubito quin futurum sit, ut laudētur, I do not doubt that he will be praised.

PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

§ 261. In a sentence containing a condition and a conclusion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodŏsis.

1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with si and its compounds, the imperfect aud pluperfect subjunctive imply the non-existence of the action or state supposed, the imperfect, as in English, implying present time. In the apodosis the same tenses of the subjunctive denote what the result would be, or would have been, had the supposition in the protasis been a valid one; as,

Nisi te sătis incitătum esse confiderem, scriberem plūra, Did I not believe that you have been sufficiently incited, I would write more (Cic.); which implies that he does believe, and therefore will not write. Si Neptūnus, quod Thēseo promīsērat, non fēcisset, Thēseus filio Hippolijo non esset orbātus. Id.

2. The present and perfect subjunctive in the *protasis*, imply the real or possible existence of the action or state supposed; as,

Si vělit, if he wishes, or, should wish, implying that he either does wish, or, at least, may wish. In the apodosis the present or perfect either of the subjunctive or of the indicative may be used.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the indicative may also be used in the protasis of a conditional sentence with si, etc.; as, Si viles, bene est. Cic. Si quis antese mirābātur quid esset, ex hoc tempõre mīrētur pōtius.... Id.—The conjunction si in the protasis is often omitted; as, Libet agros ēmi. Prīmum quavo quos agros? If you will buy lands, I will first ask, etc. But the protasis may be rendered without if, and either with or without an interrogation, as, You will buy lands, or, Will you buy lands? The future perfect often occurs in the protasis of such sentences; as, Cāsus mēdīcusve lēvārit ægrum ex pracipiti, māter dēlīra nēcābit, (Hor.) Should chance or the physician have saved him, the silly mother will destroy him. Si is in like manner omitted with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, in supposing a case which is known not to be a real one; as, Absque te esset, hōdie numquam ad solem occāsum vīvērem. Plaut.

KEM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive differ but slightly from the indicative, the latter giving to a sentence the form of reality, while the subjunctive represents it as a conception, which, however, may at the same time be a reality. The second person singular of the present and perfect subjunctive often occurs in addressing an indefinite person, where, if the person were definite, the indicative would be used; as, Memoria minitur, nisi earn exerceas. Cic. When the imperfect or pluperfect is required to denote a past action,

the indicative must be used, if its existence is uncertain, as those tenses in the subjunctive would imply its non-existence. In the $\delta r \hat{a} tio$ obliqua, when the leading verb is a present or a future, the same difference is observed between the tenses of the subjunctive as in hypothetical sentences; but when the leading verb is a preterite the difference between possibility and impossibility is not expressed.

REM. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used, both in the protasis and apodosis of a conditional sentence, in the sense of the imperfect and pluperfect; as, Tu, si hic sis, äliter sentias, If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea cūra resistat, jam flammae tülerint. Virg.

REM. 4. The protasis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Magno mercentur Atrīde, i. e. si possint. Virg.; or is contained in a participial clause; as, Agis, etsi a multitūdine victus, glōriā tāmen omnes vīcit. Just. So, also, when the participle is in the ablative absolute; as, Dōnārem tripōdas—divite me scilicet artium, quas aut Parrhāsius protalit, aut Scopas. Hor. C. Mācius Porsēnam interficere, prōpŏsitā sibi morte, cōnātus est. Cio. It is only in later writers that the concessive conjunctions etsi, quamquam, and quamvis are expressed with the participle, but tāmen is often found in the apodosis, even in the classic period, when a participial clause precedes as a protasis.

REM. 5. In hypothetical sentences relating to past time, the actions seem often to be transferred in a measure to the present by using the imperfect, either in the protasis or the apodosis, instead of the pluperfect; as, Quod certe non fecisset, si suum númërum (nantārum) nāves hābērent. Cic. Cimbri si stātim infesto agmine urbem pētissent, grande discrimen esset. Flor. Sometimes the imperfect, although the actions are completed, appears both in the protasis and the apodosis.

REM. 6. Nisi, nïsi vēro, and nïsi forte are joined with the indicative, when they introduce a correction. Nisi then signifies 'except'; as, Nescio; nïsi hoc video. Cic. Nisi vēro, and nïsi forte, 'unless perhaps,' introduce an exception, and imply its improbability; as, Nēmo fēre saltat sōbrius, nïsi forte insānit. Cic. Nisi forte in the sense of 'unless you suppose,' is commonly used ironically to introduce a case which is in reality inadmissible.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

A. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

§ 262. A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after ut, ne, quo, quin, and quominus; as,

Ea non, ut te instituérem, scripsi, I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quo fiant acriōres, They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

REMARK 1. Ut or ŭti, signifying 'that,' 'in order that,' or simply 'to' with the infinitive, relates either to a purpose or to a result. In the latter case it often refers to sic, ĭta, ădeo, tam, tālis, tantus, is, ējusmŏdi, etc., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mìhi sic érit grātum, ut grātius esse nihil possit, That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Cic. Non sum īta hēbes, ut istuc dīcam. Id. Nēgue tam ērāmus āmentes, ut explōrāta nobis esset victōria. Id. Tantum indulsit dōlōri, ut eum piētas vincēret. Nep. Ita and tam are sometimes omitted; as, Epāmīnondas fuit ētiam dīsertus, ut nēmo Thēbānus ei par esset ēlūquentiā, instead of tum dīsertus. Id. Esse ŏportet ut vīvas, non vīvēre ut ēdas. Auct. ad Her. Sol efficit ut omnia flōreant. Cic.

Rem. 2. Ut, signifying 'even if' or 'although,' expresses a supposition merely as a conception, and accordingly takes the subjunctive; as,

Ut desint vires, tämen est laudanda võluntas, Though strength be wanting, yet the will is to be praised. Ovid. Ut, in this sense, takes the negative non; as, Exercitus si päcis nõmen audiërit, ut non referat pėdem (even if it does not withdraw) insistet certe. Cic.

REM. 3. Ut, with the subjunctive denoting a result, is used with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, it remains, it follows, etc.; as,

Quī fit, ut nēmo contentus vīvat? How does it happen that no one lives contented? Hor. Huic contigit, ut patriam ex servitūte in libertātem vindicāret. Nep. Sēquītur igitur, ut ētiam vitia sint parca. Cic. Rēlīquum est, ut ēgómet mihi consūlam. Nep. Restat igitur, ut mētus astrōrum sit võluntārius. Cic. Extrēmum illud est, ut te ōrem et obsecrem. Id.

Note 1. To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases signifying 'it happens,' viz. fit, fièri non pôtest, acctólit, incidit, contingit, ēcēnit, ūsu vēnit, occurrit and est (it is the case, or it happens, and hence esto, be it that):—and the following, signifying 'it remains,' or 'it follows,' viz. fūtūrum, extrēmum, prope, proximum, and reliquum—est, rēlinquitur, sēquitur, restat, and sāpērest: and sometimes accēdīt.

NOTE 2. Contingit with the dative of the person is often joined with the infinitive, instead of the subjunctive with ut; as, Non cuivis homini contingit addre Corinthum. Hor. And with esse also and other verbs of similar maning, the predicate (as in the case of licet) is often found in the dative.—Sequetur and efficitur, 'it follows,' have sometimes the accusative with the infinitive and sometimes the subjunctive; and nascitur, in the same sense, the subjunctive only.

Note 3. Mos or mõris est, consuētūdo or consuētūdinis est, and nātūra or consuētūdo fert, are often followed by ut instead of the infinitive.—Ut also occurs occasionally after many such phrases as nõvum est, rūrum, nātūrāle, nēcesse, ūsitātum, mīrum, singūlāre—est, etc., and after æquum, rectum, vērum, ātīle, vērisimīle, and integrum—est.

For other uses of ut, with the subjunctive, see § 273.

REM. 4. Ut is often omitted before the subjunctive, after verbs denoting willingness and permission; also after verbs of asking, advising, reminding, etc., and the imperatives dic and fac; as,

Quid vis fáciam? What do you wish (that) I should do? Ter. Insani fériant sine litôra fluctus. Virg. Tentes dissimilare róyat. Ovid. Id sinas oro. Id. Se suadére, dixit, Pharnabázo id négotii dáret. Nep. Accèdat oportet actio vária. Cic. Fac côgites. Sall. So, Vide ex navi efferantur, quæ, etc. Plaut.

Verbs of willingness, etc., are völo, mālo, permitto, concēdo, pātior, sīno, līcet, vēto, etc.; those of asking, etc., are rögo, ōro, quæso, mŏneo, admöneo, jūbeo, mando, pēto, prēcor, censeo, suādeo, ŏportet, nēcesse est, postūlo, hortor, cūro, dēcerno, opto, impēro.

REM. 5. Nē, 'that not,' 'in order that not,' or 'lest,' expresses a purpose negatively; as,

Cāra ne quit ei dēsit, Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Nēmo prūdens pūnit, ut ait Plāto, quia peccātum est, sed ne peccētur. Id. Ut ne is frequently used for ne, especially in solemn discourse, and hence in laws; as, Opēra dētur, ut jūdicia ne fīant. Id. Quo ne is used in the same manner in one passage of Horace. Missus ad hoc—quo ne per vācuum Rōmīno incurreret hostis.—On the other hand ut non is used when a simple result or consequence is to be expressed, in which case ita, sic, tam are either expressed or understood; s., Tum forte ægrōtābam, ut ad nuptics tuas vēnīre non possem. In a few cases, however, ut non is used for ne.—Ut non is further used, when the negation re-

fers to a particular word or to a part only of the sentence, as in similar cases si non must be used, and not nisi; as, Confer te ad Manlium, ut a me non ejectus ad ălienos, sed invitatus ad tuos isse videāris. Cic.

- REM. 6. Nē is often omitted after cave; as,
- Cure putes, Take care not to suppose. Cic. Compare § 267, R. 3.
- REM. 7. After mětuo, timeo, věreor, and other expressions denoting fear or caution, nē must be rendered by that or lest, and ut by that not.
- Note 3. To the verbs mětuo, timeo, and věreor are to be added the substantives expressing fear, apprehension or danger, and the verbs terreo, conterreo, děterreo, cáveo, to be on one's guard, video and observo in requests (as, vide, vidète and videndum est), in the sense of 'to consider'; as,

Milo mětuěbat, ne a servis indicārētur, Milo feared that he should be betrayed by his servants. Cic. Věreor, ne, dum minuére vělim lábôrem, augeam. Ile Pávor ěrat, ne castra hostis aggrěděrētur. Liv. Illa duo věreor, ut tib possim concēděre, I fear that I cannot grant.... Cic. Cávendum est ne assentátöribus păt-fáciāmus aures, neu dáulári nos sināmus. Cic. Vide ne hoc tibi obsit. Terruit gentes, gráve ne rědīret sēcülum Pyrrhæ. Multitūdinem děterrent, ne frümentum conférant. Cæs. Me mīsérum! ne prôna cůdas. Ovid.

- Note 4. Nēve or neu is used as a continuative after ut and ne. It is properly equivalent to aut ne, but is also used for et ne after a preceding ut; as, on the other hand, et ne is used after a negation instead of aut ne; as, Lēgem tūlit, ne quis ante actārum rērum accūsārētur, nēve multārētur. Nep. Casar mīlites non longiõre örātiöne côhortātus, quam ňit suæ pristīnæ virītiis mēmoriam rētīnērent, neu perturbārentur ānīmo—prælii committendi signum dēdit. Cas. Nēque, also, is sometimes used for et ne after ut and ne; as, Ut ea prætermittam, nēque eos appellem. Cio. Cur non sancītis ne vīcīnus patricio sit plībeius, nec eōdem tītnēre eat. Līv.—Ne non is sometimes used for ut after verbs of fearing; as, Tīmeo ne non impētrem, I fear I shall not obtain it.
- Rem. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with ut and $n\bar{e}$ depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ita dicam. Cic. Ne singulos nominem. Liv.
- Note 5. Nēdum, like ne, takes the subjunctive; as, Optimis tempŏribus clārissimi viri vim tribūniciam sustinēre non pōtuērumt: nēdum his tempŏribus sine jūdiciārum rēmēdiis salvi esse possīmus,—still less, etc. Cic. Ne is sometimes used in the sense of nēdum; as, Nōvam eam pōtestātem (scil. tribūnōrum plēbis) ēripēre patribus nostris, ne nunc dulcēdine sēmel capti fērant dēsīdērium. Liv.—Nēdum without a verb has the meaning of an adverb, and commonly follows a negative; as, Ægre inermis tanta multītādo, nēdum armāta, sustīnēri pōtest. Liv. Nē, also, is used in the same manner in Cic. Fam. 9, 26.
- REM. 9. $Qu\bar{o}$, 'that,' 'in order that,' or, 'that by this means,' especially with a comparative; non $qu\bar{o}$, or non quod, 'not that,' 'not as if'; non quin, 'not as if not'; which are followed in the apodosis by sed quod, sed quia, or sed alone; and $qu\bar{o}m\bar{v}nus$, 'that not,' after clauses denoting hinderance, take the subjunctive; as,

Adjūta me, quo id fiat facilins. Aid me, that that may be done more easily. Ter. Non quo rēpūblicā sit mihi guicquam cārius, sed despērātis titum Hippocrātes vētat ādhībēre mēdicīnam. Cic. Non quod sola ornent, sed quod excellant. Id. Nēque rēcūsāvit, quo minus lēgis panam sūbīret. Nep. Ego me dūcem in cīvili bello nēgāvi esse, non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc. Cic. And instead of non quin we may say non quo non, non quod non, or non quia non; and for non qued, non eo quod, or non ideo quod.

REM. 10. Quin, after negative propositions and questions with quis and quid implying a negative, takes the subjunctive. Quin is used,

- 1. For a relative with non, after nēmo, nullus, nīhil....est, rēpērītur, incēnītur, etc.; vix est, ægre rēpērītur, etc.; as, Messānam nēmo vēnīt, quin vīdērit, i. e. qui non vidērīt, No one came to Messana who did not see. Cic. Nēgo ullam pictūram fuisse...quin conquīsiērīt, i. e. quam non, etc. Id. Nīhil est quin māle narrando possit dēprāvārī. Ter. Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensibus? Cic.
- Note 6. When quin is used for the relative it is commonly equivalent to the noninative qui, qua, quod, but it is sometimes used in prose instead of the accusative, and sometimes after dies for quo, as the ablative of time; as, Dies fère nullus est, quin hic Satrius domum meum ventitet, i. e. quo—non ventitet. Cic.—Qui non is often used for quin; as, Quis énim èrat, qui non scriet. Id.; and when quin stands for qui non or quod non, is and id are sometimes added for the sake of emphasis; as, Cleanthes négat ultum cibum esse tam gravem, quin is die et nocte concôquatur. Cic. Nitil est quod sensum hābeat, quin id intéreat. Id.—So, also, the place of quin is supplied by ut non; as, Augustus numquam filios suos pôpido commendavit ut non adjicèret (without adding) si mérébuntur. Suet. And if no negation precedes, or if non belongs to a particular word, and not to the verb, qui non and ut non must of course be used and not quin.
- 2. For ut non, 'that not,' or 'without' with a participle, especially after fâcere non possum, fier non pôtest, nulla causa est, quid causæ est? nihil causæ est; as, Fácere non possum quin ad te mittam, i. e. ut non, etc. Cic. Numquam tam måle est Sicülis, quin äliquid fácete et commôde dicant. Cic. Numquam accēdo, quin abs te abeam doctior,—without going from you wiser. Ter.
- Note 7. Quin takes the subjunctive also after the negative expressions non dibito, non est dibium, non ambigo, I doubt not; non äbest; nihit, paulum, non procul, haud multum äbest; nom, vix, ægre alstineo; tënëre me, or tempërare mihi non possum; non impëdio, non recuso, nihil prætermitto, and the like. In these cases, however, the negation in quin is superfluous, and it is generally translated into English by 'that,' but that,' or 'to' with an infinitive; as, Non dübito quin dömi sit, that he is at home. Non multum äbest, quin miserrimus sim, Not much is wanting to make me most wretched. Cic. Hence, as quin is not in such cases regarded as a negative, non is superadded when a negative sense is required; as, In quibus non dübito quin offensiönem negligentiæ vivire atque effügére non possum. Cic. Dübitandum non est quin numquam possit ütilitas cum könestäte contendêre. Id.
- Note 8. In Nepos, non dübito, in the sense of 'I do not doubt,' is always followed by the infinitive with the accusative, and the same construction often occurs in later writers but not in Cicero: in the sense of to scruple or hesitate, when the verb following has the same subject, dübito and non dübito are generally followed by the infinitive; as, Cicero non dübitābat conjūrātos supplicio afficere.—It may be added that 'I doubt whether' is expressed in Latin by dübito sitne, dübito utrum—an, dübito sitne—an, or dübito num, numquid, for dübito an, and dübium est an are used, like nescio an with an affirmative meaning.
- Note 9. Quin signifies also 'why not?' being compounded of the old ablative $qu\bar{t}$ and $n\bar{e}$, i. e. non, and in this sense is joined with the indicative in questions implying an exhortation; as, Quin conscendinus équos? Why not mount our horses? In this sense it is also joined with the imperative; as, Quin die stătim, Well, tell me: or with the first person of the subjunctive. Hence without being joined to any verb it signifies 'even' or 'rather.'
- REM. 11. The principal verbs of hinderance, after which quōminus occurs, and after which ne, and, if a negative precedes, quin also may be used, are deterreo, impédio, intercédo, obsisto, obsto, officio, prôhibeo, récūso, and répugno. It occurs also after stat or fit per me, I am the cause, non pugno, nihil moror, non contineo me, etc.

NOTE. Impědio, déterreo, and rěcūso are sometimes, and prôhibeo frequently followed by the infinitive. Instead of quōmīnus, quo sēcius is sometimes used.

- § 263. The particles specified in this section always introduce a sentence containing only a conception of the mind, and are hence joined with the subjunctive.
- 1. The subjunctive is used after particles of wishing, as *ŭtĭnam*, *ŭti*, O! and O! si; as,

Utinam minus vitæ căpidi fuissēmus! O that we had been less attached to life! Cic. O si sŏlitæ quicquam virtūtis ădesset! Virg.

REMARK. The present and perfect tenses, after these particles, are used in reference to those wishes which are conceived as possible; the imperfect and pluperfect are employed in expressing those wishes which are conceived as wanting in reality. Cf. § 261, 1 and 2.—'Would that not' is expressed in Latin both by utinam ne and utinam non. Utinam is sometimes omitted; as, Tēcum lūdēre sīcut ipsa possem! Catull.

B. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

2. (1.) Quamvis, however; licet, although; tamquam, tamquam si, quāsi, ac si, ut si, vělut, vělut si, věluti, sīcuti, and ceu, as if; modo, dum, and dummodo, provided,—take the subjunctive; as,

Quamvis ille fēlix sit, tāmen, etc. However happy he may be, still, etc. Cic. Vēritas līcet nullum dēfensorem obtīnent, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Tanquam clausa sit Asia, sic nihil perfertur ad nos. Id. Sed quid ēgo his testībus ūtor, quūsi res dūbia aut obscūra sit? Id. Me omnībus rēbus, juxta ac si meus frāter esset, sustenlāvii, He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Sīmīlter fācēre eos,—ut si nauta ecrtārent, ūter, etc. Id. Absentis Arióvisti crūdēlītātem, vēlut si cōram ādesset, horrērent. Cæs. Inque sīnus cāros, vēlūti cognoscēret, ībat. Ovid. Sīcūti jurgio lācessītus fōret, in sēnātum vēnit. Sull. Hic vēro ingentem pugnam, ceu cētēra nusguam bella fōrent. Virg. Odērint dum mētuant. Ātt. in Cic. Mūnent ingēnia sēnībus, mōdo permāneat stūdium et industria. Cic. Omnia hōnesta negligunt dummōdo pōtentiam consēquantur, They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id.

Note. Mödo, dum, and dummödo, when joined with a negation, become mödo ne, dum ne, and dummödo ne.

- (2.) Quamvis (although) is in Cicero joined with a principal tense of the subjunctive; as, Quamvis non fueris suasor, approbator certe fuist. Cic. In later writers it is often used with the indicative; as, Felicem Nioben, quamvis tot funera vidit. Ovid. So also once in Cicero, Quamvis patrem suum numquam viderat. Rab. Post. 2.
- (3.) Quanvis, as a conjunction, in the sense of 'however much,' is joined with the subjunctive. So also when its component parts are separated; as, C. Gracchus dixit, sibi in somnis Ti. frātrem vīsum esse dīcēre, quam vellet cunctārētur, timen, etc.—Quanvis 'however much,' as an adverb, governs no particular mood.
- (4.) Etsi, tămetsi, even if, although, and quamquam, although, commonly introduce an indicative clause:—ētiamsi is more frequently followed by the subjunctive. In later prose writers, and sometimes in Cicero and Sallust as well as in the poets, quamquam is joined with the subjunctive; as, Quamquam præsente Lūcullo lõquar. Cic. Vi rēgēre priviam quamquam possis. Sall. Jug. 3. Filius quamquam Thětidos mărinæ Dardānas turres quatteret. Hor.

REMARK. The imperfect subjunctive with ac si, etc., is used after the present, to denote that in reality the thing is not so, but in that case a hypothetical subjunctive must be supplied; as, Egnātii rem ut tueāre æque a te pēto, ac si mea nēgōtia essent, i. e. ac pētērem, si mea nēgōtia essent, as I would pray if, etc. Cic.

. 3. After antequam and priusquam, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are usually in the subjunctive; the present and perfect may be either in the indicative or subjunctive. The present indicative is commonly used when the action is to be represented as certain, near at hand, or already begun; the subjunctive is used when the thing is still doubtful, and also in general propositions; as,

Ea causa ante mortua est, quam tu nātus esses, That cause was dead before you were born. Cic. Avertit ēquos, priusquam pābūla gustassent Trōjæ, Xanthumque bībissent. Virg. Priusquam incīpias, consulto ŏpus est, Before you begin there is need of counsel. Sall.

4. (1.) Dum, donec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dum hic věnīret, lŏcum rělinquēre nōluit, He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cic. Nihil păto tibi esse ūtilius quam oppěrīri quoad scīre possis, quid tibi ágendum sit. Id. Cornu tětendit, et duxit longe, dōnec curvāta coīrent inter se căpita. Virg.—In the sense of 'as long as,' these particles take the indicative, but Tacitus joins dōnec with the subjunctive even when a simple fact is to be expressed.

(2.) Dum, while, is commonly used with the indicative present, whatever

may be the tense of the principal sentence. Cf. § 259, R. 1, (1.), (a.)

5. Quum (cum), when it signifies a relation of time, takes the indicative; when it denotes a connection of thought, the subjunctive; as,

Qui non defendit injūriam, nėque repulsat a suis, quum potest, injuste facit. Cic. Quum recte nārigāri poterit, tum nīviges. Id. Crēdo tum, quum Sicilia florēbat opibus et copius, magna artificia fuisse in eā insūlā. Id. Quum not sustineas et tanta nēgōtia, peccem, si morer tua tempora, Since vou are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time. Hor. Quum vīta sine āmīcis mētus plēna sit, rātio ipsa monet āmīcitias compārāre. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The rule for the use of quum may be thus expressed: Quum temporal takes the indicative, quum causal the subjunctive. Hence, when quum is merely a particle of time, with no reference to cause and effect, and not occurring in a historical narrative (see Rem. 2), it may be joined with any tense of the indicative. But when it is employed to express the relation of cause and effect, or has the meaning of though or 'although,' it is joined with the subjunctive (b.) Quum, relating to time, is commonly translated when, while, or after; referring to a train of thought, it signifies as, since, though or although, because; but may often be translated when.

REM. 2. In narration, quum, even when it relates to time, is joined with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, when a historical perfect stands in the principal clause; as,

Gracchus, quum rem illam in rēlīgionem pāpūlo vēnisse sentīret, ad sēnātum rētŭlit. Cic. Alexander, quum intērēmisset Clītum, vix mānus a se abstīnuit. Id.

NOTE. Quum temporal, when it expresses an action frequently repeated, may be joined with the pluperfect indicative, and the apodosis then contains the imperfect; as, Quum autem vir esse corperat, dabat se lubūri. Cic. Quum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrābātur. Id. Cf. § 264, 12.

REM. 3. Quum in the sense of 'while' is joined with the perfect and imperfect indicative, often with the addition of interea or interim, to express simultaneous occurrences; as, Citūlus cēpit magnum suw virtūtis fructum, quum omnes prope ūnā võce, in eo ipso vos spem hābitūros esse, dixistis. Cic. Cudebātur virgis

in médio föro Messānæ cīvis Rōmānus, jūdīces, quum intěrea nulla vox ălia istius mīsēri audiēbātur, nīsi hæc: cīvis Rōmānus sum. Id.

Rem. 4. Quum, for the most part preceded by an adverb, as, jam, nondum, vix, ægre, or joined with repente or subito is followed by the indicative, especially by the present indicative, to express the beginning of an action. In the cases mentioned in this and the preceding remark, the historians also use quum with the historical infinitive.

For the subjunctive after si and its compounds, see § 261.

C. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER QUI.

- § 264. Relatives require the subjunctive, when the clauses connected by them express merely a conception; as, for example, a consequence, an innate quality, a cause, motive, or purpose.
- 1. (a.) When the relative qui, in a clause denoting a result of the character or quality of something specified in the antecedent clause, follows a demonstrative, and is equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive.

Note. The demonstratives after which qui takes the subjunctive, are tam with an adjective, tantus, tālis, ējusmödi, hajusmödi, and is, ille, iste, and hie in the sense of tālis; as,

Quis est tam Lyncēus, qui in tantis těnebris nihil offendat? i. e. ut ille in tantis, etc.. Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble, (or, as not to stumble,) in such darkness. Cic. Tilem te esse ŏportet, qui ab impiōrum cīvium sŏciĕtāte sējungas; i. e. ut tu, etc. Id. At ea fut lēgātio Octācii, in quā pērīcūlī suspicio non sūbesset, i. e. ut in eā. Id. Nec tāmen ēgo sum ille ferreus, qui frātris cārīssīmi mærŏre non movear, i. e. ut ēgo non movear. Id. Non sūmus ii, quibus nihil vērum esse videātur, i. e. ut nobis nihil, etc. Id. Nulla gens tam fēra est, cūjus mentem non imbuērit deōrum opinio, i. e. ut ējus mentem, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,

Res parva dictu, sed quæ stúdiis in magnum certāmen excessĕrit, i. e. tālis quæ....of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. Nunc dīcis āliquid, quod ad rem pertineat, i. e. tāle ut id, etc. Id. So quis sum, for num tālis sum; as, Quis sun, cūjus aures kedi nēfas sit? Sen.—In like manner, also, a demonstrative denoting a character or quality, is implied in the examples included in the following rule:—

2. When the relative is equivalent to quamquam is, etsi is, or dummodo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Laco, consilii quanwis egregii, quod non ipse afferret, inimicus, Laco, an opponent of any measure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu aquam a pamace postalas, qui ipsus sitiat. Plant. Nikil mõlestum, quod non desideres, il e. dunmõdo id. Cic.

3. Quod, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive; as,

Quod sciam, as far as I know; quod měminěrim, as far as I recollect; quod ěgo intelligam; quod intelligi possit; quod conjectūrā prövidēri possit; quod salvā fide possim; quod commödo tuo fiat, etc.— Quidem is sometimes added to the relative in such sentences. Quod sine mõlestiā tuā fiat, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. In the phrases quantum possum, quantum ěgo perspicio, on the other hand, the indicative is used.

4. A relative clause, after the comparative followed by quam, takes the subjunctive; as,

Mājor sum, quam cui possit fortūna nocēre, i. e. quam ut mihi, etc., I am too great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Audītā võce præcōnis mājus gaudium fuit, quam quod ūnīversum hōmīnes capērent, Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was too great for the people to contain. Liv.

REMARK 1. The clause annexed by quam qui implies an inherent quality, or a consequence; so that quam qui is equivalent to quam ut, which also sometimes occurs. Sometimes the subjunctive follows quam even without a relative pronoun; as, In his literis longior fui, quam aut vellem, aut quam me pūtāvi fore:—and so frequently with the verbs velle and posse.

5. A relative clause expressing a purpose, aim, or motive, and equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive; as,

Lăcedamonii legătos Athenas miserunt, qui eum absentem accūsārent: i.e. ut illi eum accūsārent, The Lacedamonians sent ambassadors to Athens to accuse him in his absence. Nep. Casar equitatum omnem promititi, qui videant, quas in partes iter făciunt. Cas. Sunt autem multi, qui eripiunt âliis, quod âliis largiantur. Cic. Assidue répétant, quas perdant, Bélides undas. Ovid.

REM. 2. So also with relative adverbs; as, Lampsācum ei (Thěmistocli) rex dōnārat, unde vīnum sūmēret, i. e. ex quā or ut inde, etc. Nep. Sūper tābernāculum rēgis, unde ab omnībus conspīci posset, imāgo sōlis crystallo inclūsa fulgēbat. Curt.

6. A relative clause with the subjunctive after certain indefinite general expressions, specifies the circumstances which characterize the individual or class indefinitely referred to in the leading clause; as.

Fuërunt eā tempeslāte, qui dīcĕrent, There were at that time some who said. Sall. Erant, quibus appētentior fāme, vidērētur, There were those to whom he appeared too desirous of fame. Tac. Sunt, qui censeant, ūna ānīmum et corpus occidēre. Cic. Erunt, qui existimāri vēlint. Id. Si quis ērit, qui perpētuam ōrātionem dēsīdēret, altērā actione audiet. Id. Vēnient lēgiones, quæ nēque me inultum nēque te impūnītum pătiantur. Tac. So after est followed by quod, in the sense of 'there is reason why'; as, Est quod gaudeas, You have cause to rejoice. Plaut. Est quod vīsam dómum. Id. Si est quod dēsit, ne beātus quidem est. Cic.

- Note 1. The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, prasto sunt, existent, exoriuntur, inveniuntur, reperiuntur, (scil. homines); si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus veniet, etc.
- REM. 3. The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde hece fiant. Si est culpum ut Antipho in se admisērit, If it chance that, etc. Ter. Est ŭbi id isto modo videat. Cic. So est cur and est ut in the sense of est cur; as, Ille ĕrat, ut ōdisset dēfensōrem sālūtis meæ, i. e. he had reason to hate. Cic. Non est igitur ut mīrandum sit, There is no occasion for wondering. Id.
- REM. 4. The above and similar expressions are followed by the subjunctive only when they are indefinite. Hence, after sunt quidam, sunt nonnulli, sunt multi, etc., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative; as, Sunt örātiönes quedam, quas Menocrito dabo. Cic.
- REM. 5. The indicative is sometimes, though rarely, used after sunt qui, even when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos juvat. Hor. Sunt qui ita dicunt. Sall.
- 7. A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive; as,

Nëmo est, qui haud intelligat, There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit continuum läbörem, There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quint. Nulla pars est corpôris, quæ non sit minor. Id. Nihil est, quod tam misèros fàciat, quam impiètas et scèlus. Cic. In föro vix dècimus quisque est, qui ipsus sèse noscat. Plaut. Quis est, qui ūtlila figiat? Who is there that shuns what is useful? Cic. Que lâtebra est, in quam non intret mètus mortis? Scn. Quid dulcius quam hâbère, quicum omnia audeas sic lòqui ut lècum? Cic. (See respecting this use of the indefinite quicum rather than the definite quōcum, § 136, R. 1.) An est quisquam, qui hoc ignôret? Is there any one who is ignorant of this? Id. Numquid est mult, quod non dixèris? Ter.

Note 2. General negatives are nomo, nullus, nihil, ūnus non, ālius non, non quisquam, viz ullus, nec ullus, etc., with est; vix with an ordinal and quisque; nego esse quemquam, etc. Interrogative expressions implying a negative, are quis, quid; qui, quæ, quod; quantus, ūter. ecquis, numquis, an quisquam, an āliquis, quotus quisque, quotus, etc., with est? quot, quam multi, etc., with sunt?

Note 3. The same construction is used after non est, nihil est, quid est, numquid est, etc., followed by quod, cur, quāre, or quamobrem, and denoting 'there is no reason why,' 'what cause is there?' 'is there any reason?' as, Quod tīmeas, non est, There is no reason why you should fear. Ovid. Nihil est, quod adventum nostrum pertīmescas. Cie. Quid est, quod de vjus cīvītāte dūbītes? Id. Quæris a me, quid vyo Cātīlīnam mētuam. Nihil, et cūrāvi ne quis mētueret. Quid est, cur virtus ipsa per se non efficiat beātos? Id.—So after non hābeo, or nihil hābeo; as, Non hābeo, quod te accūsem. Cie. Nil hābeo, quod agam, I have nothing to do. Hor. Nihil hābeo, quod ad te scrībam. Cie. So without a negative, De quībus hābeo ipse, quid sentiam. Id. Causa or, with quid and nihil, causæ, is sometimes added; as, Non fuit causa, cur postūlāres. Id. Quid erat causæ, cur mētueret. Id.

Note 4. (a.) The relative clause takes the subjunctive after the expressions included in this and the last rule, only when it expresses the character or quality of the subject of the antecedent clause; and the relative, as in the preceding cases of the relative with the subjunctive, is equivalent to a personal or demonstrative pronoun with ut; as, $N\bar{e}mo$ est, qui nesciat, There is no one who is ignorant, i. e. no one is ignorant. Cic. So, Sunt, qui hoc carpant, There are some who blame this, i. e. some blame this. Vell.

- (b.) If the relative clause is to be construed as a part of the logical subject it does not require the subjunctive; as, Nihil stabile est, quod infidum est Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.
- 8. (1.) A relative clause expressing the *reason* of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccārisse mihi videor, qui a te discesserim, I think I did wrong in leaving you. Cic. Inertiam accūsas ădolescentium, qui istam artem non ediscant, You blame the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn that art. Id. O fortūnāte ādolescens, qui tuæ virtūtis Homērum præconem inveneris!—in having found. Id. Cānīnius fuit mīrificā vigilantiā, qui suo tōto consūlātu somnum non vīderit,—since, etc. Id.

(2.) Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut qui, quippe qui, or utpote qui, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Convīvia cum patre non inībat, quippe qui ne in oppīdum quidem nīsi perrāro vēnisset. Cic. Nēque Antōnius prācul ābērat, utpōte qui magno exercitu sēquē-rētur. Sall. But sometimes with the indicative in Sallust and Livy; as, Quippe qui omnīa vicērat. Sall.

9. After dignus, indignus, aptus, and ĭdōneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Vidētur, qui ālīquando impēret, dignus esse, He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cic. Rustici nostri quum fidem ālīcūjus bŏnītātemque laudant, dignum esse dīcunt, quīcum in tēnebris mīces. Id. Nulla vidēbātur aptior per-

sona, que de atate loqueretur. Id. Pompeius idoneus non est, qui impetret. Id. Et rem Idoneam, de qua quæratur, et homines dignos, quibuscum disseratur, putant. Id.

Note 5. If the relative clause does not express that of which the person or thing denoted by the antecedent is worthy, its construction is not influenced by this rule. Thus, Quis servus libertate dignus fuit, cui nostra sălus căra non esset? The subjunctive is here used according to No. 7 of this section.

Note 6. The infinitive frequently follows these adjectives in poetry, though rarely in prose; as, Et puer ipse fuit cantāri dignus. Virg.:—and sometimes ut; as, Eras dignus, ut habēres integram mānum. Quint.

10. A relative clause, after ūnus, solus, prīmus, etc., restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive; as,

Hæc est una contentio, quæ ådhuc permanserit, This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sola, quæ nos vocet ad se, et alliceat suapte natūrā, Pleasure is the only thing that, by its own nature, invites and allures us to itself. Id.

- 11. When the relative refers to a dependent clause, it often takes the subjunctive. See § 266.
- 12. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in narration after relative pronouns and adverbs, when a repeated action is spoken of; as,

Semper hăbiti sunt fortissimi, qui summam impěrii potirentur, Those were always accounted the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nep. Quemcumque lictor jussu consulis prehendisset, tribūnus mitti jūbēbat. Liv. Ut quisque maxime laborāret locus, aut ipse occurrēbat, aut ālīquos mittēbat. So after si quis or qui; as, Si qui rem mălitiosius gessisset, dedecus existimabant. Quotiens super tali negotio consultarct, edita domus parte utebatur. Tac. Nec quisquam Pyrrhum, quā tulisset impētum, sustinēre valuit.—It is sometimes found in like manner after quum, with, ut, and si when used in the sense of quum, when repeated actions are spoken of; as, Id wid dixissct, hastam in fines eörum ēmittēbai. Liv. Sin Numida propius accessissent, ibi vēro virtūtem ostendēre. Sall. Sometimes even the present subjunctive is so used when employed as an agrist to express things which have happened repeatedly, and still happen (sec § 145, I. 2.); as, Ubi de magnā virtūte et gloriā bonorum memores, quæ sibi quisque, etc. Sall.

NOTE 7. This is called the indefinite subjunctive, or subjunctive of generality, inasmuch as the action is not referred to a distinct, individual case. The indicative, however, is used in such cases more frequently than the subjunctive.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

§ 265. Dependent clauses, containing an indirect question, take the subjunctive.

Note 1. A question is indirect when its substance is stated in a dependent clause without the interrogative form. Indirect questions generally depend upon those verbs and expressions which commonly take after them the accusative with the infinitive. Cf. § 272. Thus:—

Quālis sit animus, ipse animus nescit, The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Crēdibile non est, quantum scrībam, It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis ego sim, me rogitas? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Ad te quid scribam nescio. Cic. Nec quid scribam habeo, Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Doce me, ubi sint dii, Inform me where the gods are. Id. Incertum est, quo te loco mors exspectet. Sen. Ep. Quam pridem sibi hērēditas vēnisset, docei. Id. Nunc accipe, quare desipiant omnes. Hor. Id utrum illi sentiant, an

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vēro sīmŭlent, tu intellīges. Cic. Quæro, num tu sĕnātui causam tuam permittas. Id. Vīdes, ut altā stet nīve candidum Söracte. Hor. Nescit, vītāne fruātur, an sit ăpud mānes. Oyid.

Note 2. All interrogatives whether adjectives, pronouns, or particles, may serve as connectives of clauses containing indirect questions: as.

Quantus, quālis, quōt, quōtus, quōtuplex, ūter; quis, qui, cūjas; ūbi, quō, unde, quā, quorsum, quamdiu, quamdudum, quamprīdem, quōties, cur, quāre, quambrem, quemadmidum, quōmboo, ut, quam, quantippre, an, ne, num, utrum, anne, annon.

REMARK 1. The indicative is frequently used in dependent questions, especially in Terence and Plautus and occasionally in later poets; as, Vide acartia quid facit. Ter. So Virg. Ecl. 5, 7. In the best prose writers the indicative generally indicates that the question is direct, or that the sentence is not a question; as, Quarāmus ūbi mālēfīcium est, Let us seek there, where the crime actually is. Cic. Nihil est admīrābilius, quam quōmŏdo ille mortem fīlii tālīt.

REM. 2. In double questions, 'whether—or,' the first may be introduced by utrum, or the enclitic ne, or without an interrogative particle. Hence there are four forms of double questions,—1. utrum (or utrum ne),—an. 2. utrum,—an (anne). 3. -ne, — an. 4. -ne, — -ne; as, Multum interest, utrum laus imminuatur, an sălus dēsēvātur. Cic. The interrogative particle utrum is not used in a single question; and num—an is used only in direct questions. The English 'or not' in the second part, which is used without a verb; but necne occurs only in indirect questions; as, Dii utrum sint, neone sint, quaritur. Cic.—Ne—ne, an—an, or num—num scarcely occur except in poetical or unclassical language.

REM. 3. D'úbito, d'úbium est, or incertum est an, d'élibèro or hæsito an, and especially haud seto an, nescio an, though implying some doubt, have generally

a sense almost affirmative. Compare § 198, 11, R. (e.)

REM. 4. Nescio quis, used nearly in the sense of ăliquis, does not influence the mood of the following verb; as, Sed cāsu nescio quo in ea tempòra ætas nostra incidit. Cic. Lūcus, nescio quo cāsu, nocturno tempòre incensus est. Nep. So, also, nescio quōmòdo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quōmòdo, inhæret in mentibus quasi augūrium. Cic. In like manner mīrum quam, mīrum quantum, nimium quantum, and the like, when united to express only one idea, do not affect the mood of the verb; as, Sāles in dicendo nīmium quantum vālent,—very much. Cic.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INSERTED CLAUSES.

§ **266.** 1. When a dependent proposition containing either an accusative with the infinitive, or a verb in the subjunctive, has a clause connected with it, as an *essential part*, either by a relative, a relative adverb, or a conjunction, the verb of the latter clause is put in the subjunctive; as,

Quid enim pôtest esse tam perspicuum, quam esse ăliquod numen, quo hac regantur? For what can be so clear as, that there is some divinity by whom these things are governed? Cic. Here the thing which is stated to be clear is, not merely esse aliquod numen, that there is a god, but also that the world is governed by him. Hence the latter clause, quo hac regantur is an essential part of the general proposition. Illud sic fere definire solet, decorum id esse, quod consentăneum sit höminis excellentiae. Id. Audiam quid sit, quod Epicurum non probes, I shall hear why it is that you do not approve of Epicurus. Id. Jussit ut, quae venissent, naves Eubaam peterent. Liv.

REMARK 1. Hence the subjunctive is used in general sentences, in which the class of things mentioned exists only as a conception or idea, while the individual thing has a real existence; as, Est ěnim ulciscendi et pūniendi modus, atque haud scio an sătis sit eum qui lăcessierit injuriæ suæ pæntere, i. e. each individual offender of the class.

Rem. 2. When the principal proposition contains a subjunctive denoting a result, after ita, tam, talis, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia rena, aner au, ann, aas, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia vero tam öpīma est et fertilis, ut—multītādīne eārum rērum, quæ exportantur, fácile omnībus terris antēcellut. Cic. The same is the case in definitions; as, Vidēre igitur öportet, quæ sint convēnientia cum ipso nēgōtio, hoc est, quæ ab re sēpārāre non possunt. Cic.—So also explanatory clauses, especially circumlocutions introduced by a relative pronoun, are sometimes found with the indicative; as, Itāque ille Mārius item eximie L. Plōtium dīlexit, cūjus ingēnio pūtābat ea, quæ gessērat, posse cēlebrāri. Cic.

Note. To this rule belongs the construction of the ōrātio oblīqua, 'indirect discourse,' or 'reported speech,' in which the language of another is presented, not as it was conceived or expressed by him, but in the third person. Thus, Cæsar said, 'I came, I saw, I conquered,' is direct,—Cæsar said, that 'he came, saw, and conquered,' is indirect discourse.

2. In the ōrātio oblīqua, the main proposition is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; and dependent clauses connected with it by relatives and particles, take the subjunctive.

Thus, Cicero and Quintilian, in quoting the language of Marcus Antonius, make use, the former of the *ōrātio dīrecta*, the latter of the *ōrātio oblīqua*;—
Antōnius inquit, 'Ars eārum rērum est, quæ sciuntur', Antonius says, 'Art belongs to those things which are known.' Cic. Antōnius inquit, artem eārum rērum esse, quæ sciantur, Antonius says, that 'art belongs to those things which are known.' Quint.

So, Socrates dicere solebat, omnes, in eo quod scirent, satis esse eloquentes, Socrates was accustomed to say, that 'all were sufficiently eloquent in that which they understood? Cic. Cito mirāri se aiēbat, quod non rīdēret haruspex, haruspicem quum vidisset. Id. Negat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugnare cum hoste. Id. Indignābantur ibi esse imperium, ubi non esset libertas. Liv. Itaque Athēnienses,

quod honestum non esset, id ne ūtile quidem (esse) putavērunt. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) When the subjunctive would be necessary in the oratio directa, to denote liberty, power, etc., the same remains in the oratio obliqua, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusative; as, Ad hac Ariovistus respondit, quum rellet, congrederatur, To this Ariovistus replied, that 'he might meet him when he pleased.' Cæs. In the ōrātio dīrecta, this would be congrediāris.

- (b.) The imperative in the ōrātio dīrecta is, in the ōrātio cblīqua, changed into the subjunctive; as, hoc mihi dīcite, which in the oratio obliqua is, hoc sibi dicant, or hoc sibi dicerent, according to the tense of the leading verb.
- (c.) So also direct questions addressed to the second person, when changed from direct to indirect speech, become subjunctives. Liv. 6, 37.—But such questions when not addressed to the second person are expressed in the oratio obliqua by the accusative with the infinitive; as when in direct speech we say, Etiamsi větěris contămēliæ oblivisci vělim, num possum ětiam rěcentium injūriārum měmoriam deponere? The oratio obliqua will be, Casar respondit (histor. perf.)si větěris contămēliæ oblīvisci vellet, num ětiam rěcentium injūriārum-měmoriam deponere posse? Cas. Very rarely the accusative with the infinitive is found in a question of the second person, as in Liv. 6, 17: but the subjunctive in questions of the third person is less uncommon in Cæsar; as, Quis pāti posset? for quem pāti posse? Quis hoc sibi persuādēret? for quem sibi persuāsūrum? See § 273, 3.
- REM. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in oratio obliqua, either preserving the first person, or adopting the third.

REM. 3. When the inserted clause contains the words or sentiments of the subject of the leading clause, all references to him are regularly expressed by the reflexives sui and suus; as, Hac něcesstläte coactus dŏmino nāvis qui sit ǎpěrit, multa pollicens, si se conservosset. Nep. And this is equally true when the word to which the pronoun refers is not in reality the grammatical subject, provided it may still be conceived as such; as, Quum ei in suspicionem vēnisset, altquid in ēpistōlā de se esse scriptum. Nep.; for the words, quum ei in suspicionem vēnisset, are equivalent to quum suspicārētur. See § 208, (1.)

REM. 4. The tenses to be used in changing the ōrātio directa into the obliqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, § 258. But when the future perfect would be used in the direct, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form; but the perfect is used after the

present, perfect definite, or future.

Rem. 5. When the connected clause contains merely a descriptive circumstance, or expresses what is independent of the sentiment of the preceding clause, it takes the indicative; as, Imperāvit Alexander Lysippo, at eõrum equitum, qui āpud Grānīcum cēcīdērant, fūcēret stātuas, Alexander ordered Lysippus to make statues of those horsemen who had fallen at the Granicus. Sometimes, in other cases, when it is evident from the sense, that the connected clause is an essential part of the proposition, the indicative is used, to avoid giving the appearance of contingency to the sentence.

3. A clause connected to another by a relative or causal conjunction, takes the subjunctive, (whatever be the mood of the preceding verb,) when it contains not the sentiment or allegation of the writer, but that of some other person alluded to; as,

Sōcrātes accūsātus est, quod corrumpĕret jūventūtem, Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth, lit., because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Deum invōcābant, cujus ad sōlenne vēnissent, They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Quos vīcēris āmīcos tibi esse cāve crēdas, Do not believe that those whom you have conquered are your friends. Here, in the first example, the charge of corrupting the youth is not made by the writer, but by the accusers of Socrates. So, in the second example, the worshippers allege that they have come to attend upon the solemnities of the god. In the last, it is implied by the use of the subjunctive mood, that the belief spoken of is that of the person addressed:—quos vīcisti would have been merely an addition of the speaker, by means of which he would have designated the persons whose friendship he was speaking of; and, in general, the indicative, in such sentences, is employed in those statements which are independent of the sentiments of the person, to whose thoughts or words allusion is made. Cf. supra, 2, R. 5.

REMARK. In the preceding cases, it is not directly said that the sentiments are those of another than the writer. In Cicero, however, the words dico, pito, arbitror, and the like, are often construed in a similar manner, although, properly speaking, not these verbs, but those in the clauses dependent on them, should be in the subjunctive; as, Quum ĕnim, Hannibilis permissu, exissed de castris, rĕdiit paulo post, quod se oblitum nescio quod dīcĕret,...because (as) he said, he had forgotten something. Cic. Ab Alhēniensibus, locum šepultūra intra urbem ut dārent, impetrāre non pōtui, quod rēligiōne se impēdīri dīcĕrent. 1d.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

§ 267. The imperative mood is used to express a command, wish, advice, or exhortation; as,

Nosce te, Know thyself. Cic. Æquam měmento servāre mentem, Remember to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ådes, Come hither. Virg. Pasce căpellas, et pōtum pastas ăge, et inter ăgendum occursăre capro căvêto. Id.

- (1.) The imperative present denotes that an action is to be performed directly or at once; as, lige, read; morere, die; or that a state or condition is to continue; as, vive, live.
- (2.) The imperative future denotes that something is to be done, as soon as something else has taken place; as, Quum valetūdini tuve consuleries, tum consultro nāvigātioni. Cic. Prius audite paucis; quod quum dizero, si placuērit, făcitote. Ter. The precedent event is often to be supplied by the mind. Sometimes, especially in poetry, the imperative present is used for the imperative future, and, on the other hand, scito and scitote, from scio, are used instead of the imperative present, which is wanting.
- (3.) Hence the imperative future is properly used in contracts, laws, and wills; and also in precepts and rules of conduct; as, Rēgio impērio duo sunto, itque consules appellantor, militiæ summum jus habento, nēmini pārento, illis sālus populi suprēma lex esto. Cic. Non sātis est pulchra esse poēmāta, dulcia sunto. Hor. Ignosēto sæpe altēri, numquam tibi. Syr.

REMARK 1. With the imperative, not is expressed by $n\bar{e}$, and nor by $n\bar{e}ve$; as,

Ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. Ne crēde cölöri. Id. Höminem mortuum in urbe ne sēpēlīto, nēve ūrīto. Cic.

Note. Non and něque occur, though rarely, with the imperative; as, Vos quòque non càris aures onerate làpillis, nec pròàtte gràves insito vestibus auro Ovid. But with the subjunctive used for the imperative non and especially něque are found more frequently. Cf. § 260, R. 6, (b.)—In Plautus and Terence ne is of common occurrence both with the imperative and with the present subjunctive, and with no difference of meaning; but later poets chiefly use ne with the present subjunctive, and ne with the imperative only when they speak emphatically. In classical prose writers the periphrastic nöli with the infinitive is preferred.

- Rem. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used instead of both tenses of the imperative, to express a command in a milder form, an exhortation, or an entreaty; as, Qui ádipisci vēram gloriam võlet, justitive fungātur officiis. Cic. Quod dubitas, ne tēcvris. Plin. Ep. See § 260, II., R. 6. An imperative of the perfect passive is very rarely found; as, At vos admoniti nostris quòque cāsibus este. Ovid. Jacta ālea esto. Coss. in Suet. But the subjunctive is more common; as, Jacta sit ālea. Sometimes also the future indicative; as, Sed vālēbis, meāque nēgūtia vidēbis, mēque dis jūvantībus ante brūmam exspectābis, instead of vāle, vide, vaspecta. Cic. Ubi sententiam meam vābis pērēgēro, tum quībus eādem plācēbunt, in dextram partem tācīti transībītis, instead of transītōte. Liv. With the future the negative is non. See § 259, R. 1, (4.)
- Rem. 3. Sometimes, for the simple affirmative imperative, cūra or cūrāto ut, fac ut, or fac alone is used with the subjunctive; as, Cūra ut quam prīmum věnias, Come as soon as possible. Fac ērūdias, Instruct, or Take care to instruct. Cic. For the negative imperative fuc ne, côve ne or côve alone, with the present or perfect subjunctive is used; but especially nōli with the infinitive; as, Nōli pūtāre, Do not suppose. Cic. Côve existimes, Do not think. Id. Nolīte id velle quod non fièri pōtest, et căvēte ne spe præsentis pūcis perpētuam pācem omittātis. Id.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ 268. 1. The infinitive partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle combines the properties of the adjective and verb. It expresses simply the action or state implied in the verb in an abstract manner, without specifying either person, number, or time, and thus merely indicates whether an action is in progress or completed.

2. The tenses of the infinitive denote respectively an action as present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verbs with which they are connected; as,

Hoc făcere possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vidi nostros înimicos căpere bellum, I saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec gemere aeriā cessābit turtur ab ulmo, Nor shall the turtle dove cease to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.—Victōrem victæ succūbuisse queror, I complain that the victor has yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a senībus audisse dīcēbant, They said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cives ācuisse ferrum jūventus, The youth will hear that the citizens have whetted the sword. Hor.—Nēgat sēse verbum esse factūrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audierat non dātum īri fīlio uxōrem suo, After he had heard that a wife would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimābītis nīhīl hōrum vos vīsūros fŏre, You will always suppose that you are to see none of these things. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The present and perfect infinitives are sometimes called respectively the infinitives of incomplete and of completed action. The present infinitive, however, is sometimes used to denote a completed action. This is the usual construction with mėmini; but in such case the speaker transfers himself to the past, and the expression denotes rather a recollection of the progress than of the completion of the action; as, Hoc me mėmini dicēre, I remember my snying this. Cic. Teucrum mėmini Sidōna venīre, I remember Teucer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with mėmōriā tēneo. Cic. Phil. 8, 10. Scrībit also is construed like mėmini; as, Cic. Off. 3, 2: and after the same analogy, and for the sake of vivid expression Cicero says, M. Maximum accēpīmus fāctle cēlāre, tācēre, dissīmūlāre, etc., though speaking of things which he had not witnessed himself. So, also, with récordor;—Rēcordor longe omnibus ūnum antéferre Dēmosthēmem. Cic. When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with měmini; as, Měministis me ita distribuisse causam. Cic.

(b.) The passive voice having no simple form for expressing the completed state of suffering makes use of the combination of the perfect participle with esse; as, āmātus esse, to have been loved. When thus combined esse loses its own signification of a continued state, and when this state is to be expressed, another infinitive must be chosen; as, Constrictan jam hõrum conscientiā tēnēri conjūrātiōnem tuam non vīdes? Cic. Sometimes, however, when no ambiguity can arise, esse in the usual combination retains its original meaning; as, Apud Plōtōnem est, omnem mõvem Lācēdæmāniōrum inflammātum esse cāṇidītāte vincendi. Id. Here inflammātum esse expresses a continued or habitual state.—Fuisse with the perfect participle denotes a state completed previous to a certain past time; as, Jūbet bōno ănīmo esse; sōpītum fuisse rēgem sābīto ictu. Liv.

Rem. 2. To express the result of an action rather than its progress, the perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present, especially after sătis hābeo, sătis mihi est, pădet, contentus sum, mēlius erit, vôlo or a verb of equivalent meaning; as, Bacchātur vātes, magnum si pectôre possit excussisse deum. Virg. Quum illum nēmo vēlit attīgisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect where we should expect a present; as, Tendentes Pēlion impôsuisse Olympo. Hor.

REM. 3. The present infinitive is also sometimes used for the future, especially when the verb has no future; as, Dēsine f āta deûm flecti spērāre, Cease to hope that the fates of the gods will be changed. Virg. Prōgēniem Trōjāno a sanguine dūci audiērat. Id. Cras mihi argentum dăre dixit, i. e. se dătūrum esse. Ter. Cāto affirmat se vivo illum non triumphāre. Cic.

REM. 4. (a.) The infinitive future active is formed by a combination of the participle future active with esse; as, $\check{a}m\check{a}t\check{u}rus$ esse; the infinitive future passive by a combination of the supine in um with $\check{v}ri$; as, $\check{a}m\check{a}tum$ $\check{v}ri$. These future infinitives denote an action or state as continuing. The participle in rus, which properly expresses intention (see § 162, 14), takes also the infinitive future to express a past intention; as, Scio te scripturum future, I know that

you have had the intention to write, whence it was an easy transition to the sense, 'you would have written,' in conditional sentences, when the condition is not fulfilled. This infinitive is used especially in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences, where in direct speech the pluperfect subjunctive would be used (cf. § 162, 14, R. 3.); as, Etiamsi obtemperasset auspicies, idem eventurum fuisse pito. Cic. In like manner the infinitive future with esse is used in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences instead of the imperfect subjunctive; as, Libertus, nisi jūrasset, seēlus se factūrum (esse) arbitrābātur. Id.

- (b.) Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, fūtūrum esse or före, followed by ut and the subjunctive, is often used; the present and imperfect subjunctive, in such cases, denoting an unfinished, the perfect and pluperfect a finished, future action; as, Numquam pūtūri före, ut supplex ad te vēnīrem, I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cic. Suspicor före, ut infringātur hōmīnum improbitas. Id. Crēdēbam före, ut epistolam scripsisses.—So, also, in the passive for a continued state of future suffering the present and imperfect are used; as, Crēdo före, ut epistolam scribātur, and, Crēdēbam före, ut epistola scribērētur. But to express a completed state in future time the perfect participle is employed; as, Quos spēro brēvi tempore tēcum cōpūlātos före. Cic. Quod vīdēret nōmīne pācis bellum involūtum före. Id. This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no future active participle, or no supine; as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed; as, Spēro före ut sāpias.—Före is found in two passages pleonastically joined with the future participle active, viz. Te ad me före ventūrum. Cic. Att. 5, 21: and Quum sēnātus censēret—lībenter factūros före. Liv. 6, 42.
- Rem. 5. (a.) The periphrastic infinitive formed by the future active participle with fuses, denotes a future action contingent upon a condition which was not fulfilled; and, in the apodosis of a conditional sentence, corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, An censes me tantos libbres susceptūrum fuisse, si isdem finibus gloriam meām quibus vitam essem terminātūrus? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, etc. Cic. Ut perspīcuum sit omnībus, misi tanta acerbitas injūriae fuisset, numquam illos in eam locum progressūros fuisse,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.
- (b.) Fūtūrum fuisse with ut and the imperfect subjunctive passive, corresponds to the infinitive fuisse with the future participle active in a conditional proposition; as, Nisi nuncii essent allāti, existimābant plērīque fūtūrum fuisse, ut oppādum āmittērātur,...that the town would have been lost. Cæs.
- (c.) The participle future passive cannot be used to form an infinitive future passive, since it always retains the meaning of necessity, and in this sense has three regular infinitives, amandum esse, amandum fuisse, and amandum fore; as, Instire hièmem, aut sub pellibus habendos milites fore, aut différendum esse in assatem bellum. Liv.
- Rem. 6. In the apodosis of a conditional sentence, the perfect infinitive, like the past tenses of the indicative, (see § 259, R. 4.), sometimes corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, (Dixi) sibi vitam filiæ sui căriorem fuisse, si libère ac pidrec rivere licitum fuisset, (He said) that the life of his daughter had been dearer to him than his own, if it had been permitted... Liv. This use of the perfect infinitive is necessary, when the verb has no future particle; as, Equidem Platonem existimo, si genus forense dicendi tracture voluisset, gravissime et copiosissime pounise dicere,—would have been able to speak. Cic.
- § 269. The infinitive may be regarded either as a verb or as an abstract noun. (a.) As a verb it is used either indefinitely (§ 143, 4), or with a subject of its own, which is put in the accusative, (§ 239). But the infinitive passive of neuter and sometimes of active verbs, like the third person singular of that voice, may be used impersonally or without a subject; as, Vides 650 properari littre, You see a stir is made all along the shore. Virg. See §§ 209, R. 3, (2.), and 239, R. 4. The present infinitive has sometimes, in narration, a subject in the nominative. See § 209, R. 5.

(b.) As a noun, the infinitive, either alone or with a subject-accusative, has two cases, the nominative and the accusative, and is accordingly used either as the subject or the object of a verb.

THE INFINITIVE AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.

The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *subject* of a verb; as,

Ad rempublicam pertinet me conservari, It concerns the state that I should be preserved. Cic. Numquam est ūtile peccare, To do wrong is never useful. Id. Mājus dēdēcus est parta ānxittère quam omnūno non pārāvisse. Sall. In the first example conservāri with its subject accusative me is the subject of pertinet, and is equivalent to 'my preservation': in the second, peccare is the subject of est ūtile. See § 202, 2, and III. R. 2.

REMARK 1. A general truth may be expressed by the infinitive without a subject; as, Fácinus est vincire civem Rômânum, To bind a Roman citizen, or, that one should bind a Roman citizen, is a crime. But in such case the verb esse and verbs denoting to appear, to be considered or called (§ 210, R. 3.), require the noun or adjective of the predicate to agree with the implied subject in the accusative; as, Æquum est peccātis vēniam poscentem reddēre rursus. Hor. Attieus maximum æstimāvit quæstum, mēmõrem grātumque cognosci. Nep.

Note. The indefinite pronoun aliquem or aliques may in such cases be supplied, and the same indefiniteness may be expressed by te or uns, cf. 209, R. 7; but it is still more frequently expressed by the infinitive passive. Hence the sentence Fatinus est vincire cirem Römänum, may also be expressed by Fatinus est vincire twem Römänum. So, Quum viderent de enrum virtate non despērāri. Nep.—The impersonal verbs locet, decet, oportet, opus est, and nocesse est, when there is no definite subject, are joined with the infinitive active alone; but when there is a subject-accusative, they are connected with the passive construction; as, a ct. licet hoc facer; decet specimen capere ex hac re; puss. licet hoc fiir; decet spēcimen cāpi.

Rem. 2. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, is often the subject of a proposition, when the substantive verb with a noun, a neuter adjective, or an impersonal verb forms the predicate. Of this kind are justum, equum, vērīsīmīle, consentāneum, āpertum—est, ērat, etc., nēcesse est, õpus est;—appāret, constat, convēnit, dēcet, hoet, öportet; intelligitur, perspicitur, etc.; as, Cui verba dāre difficile est. Ter. Mendācem mēmorem esse oportet. Quint. Lēgem brevem esse oportet. Sen. Constat profecto ad sālūtem cīvium inventas esse lēges. Cic. Non čnim me hoc jam dīcēre pūdēbit. Id. See § 209, R. 3, (5.), (a.)

Rem. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non licere cuiquam in nave capillos deponère. Ter.

REM. 4. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may also be the predicate nominative; as, *Impūne quælibet* făcĕre id est rēgem esse. Sall. In this sentence făcĕre is the subject, and rēgem esse is the predicate; for id, which only represents by a kind of apposition the chause impūne quælibet făcĕre, can be omitted.

Rem. 5. When the infinitive esse, (or others of similar meaning, as, fièri, vivère, vitam degère, cédère, dère, etc.), with a predicate adjective (or noun), is joined with licet, such predicate is put in the accusative, if the subject-accusative of the infinitive is expressed, and sometimes, also, when it is omitted, but more frequently, in the latter case, the predicate adjective or noun is attracted to the dative following licet; as, Ut eum liceut ante tempus considem fièri. Auct. ad Her. Médios esse jam non licēbit. Cic. Si civi Rōmāno licet esse Gādītānum. Id.—Līcuit ēnim esse ōtioso Thēmistocii. Id. Mihi nēglīgenti esse non licet. Id. Sibi vitam filies suā cāriōrem fuisse, si lībēræ ac pūdīcæ vīvēro licitum fuisset (scil. ei). Liv. So also nēcesse est with the predicate in the

dative. Vobis necesse est fortibus viris esse. Liv.—But licet, oportet, and necesse est are also joined with the subjunctive mood, and hence is derived the construction of licet as a conjunction. See § 263, 2.

THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB.

§ 270. The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the object of a verb; as,

Hæc vītāre cupimus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Poētas omnino non conor attingëre, I do not at all attempt to read the poets. Id. Sententiam valere cupierunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spēro te valere, I hope that you are well. Id.

Note. The infinitive as the object of a verb supplies the place of the accusative of the thing, and hence many active verbs besides the infinitive take in the active voice an accusative of the person, cf. § 231, R. 3, (b.), and in the passive retain the infinitive; as, Consules jubentur scribere exercitum. Muros ădīre větīti sunt. Cf. § 234, I.

REMARK 1. The infinitive alone may also depend upon an adjec-Il tive, and sometimes upon a noun.

(a.) It may depend upon relative adjectives, (see § 213, R. 1), which, by the poets, are joined with the infinitive instead of their usual construction with the poets, are joined with the infinitive instead of their usual construction with the genund, etc.; as, Cēdēre nescius. Hor. Avīdi committēre pugnam. Ovid. Cāpīdus mōrīri. Id. Cantāre pērīti Arcādes. Virg. Callīdus condēre furto. Hor. Quādlībet impōtens spērāre. Id. Sutrīnas fācēve inscius. Varr. Insuētus vēra audīre. Liv. Certa mōri. Virg. Felicior unguēre tēla. Virg. So, Audax omnia perpéti, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornāre Cipassis, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solvēre nōdum. Hor. Indōcilis paupēriem pāti. Id. Non lēnis fāta rēcādēre. Id. See § 213, R. 4, (1)

(b.) It may also depend upon adjectives signifying usefulness, fitness, etc., which are sometimes by the poets construed with the infinitive instead of the dative; as, (Tībia) aspirāre et ādesse chōris ērat ūtīlis. Hor. Ætas mollis et

dative; as, (Tībia) aspīrāre et adesse choris erat ūtīlis. Hor. Ætas mollis et apta regi. Ovid. Fons etiam rivo dare nomen idoneus. Hor. Frayes consumere nati. Id. And after dignus and contentus; as, Dignus amari. Virg. Cf. § 244,

(c.) Upon a noun; as, Tempus est hūjus libri făcere finem, It is time to finish this book. Nep. Iniit consilia reges tollere, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id. Ea érat confessio căput rerum Romam esse. Liv. Cupido incesserat Æthiopiam invisere. Curt. Quibus în ôtio vivere copia érat. Sall. So, Nec mihi sunt vīres inimīcos pellēre tectis, instead of pellendis inimīcis, or ad pellendos inimicos. Ovid.

(d.) If for the infinitives depending on nouns or adjectives other nouns were substituted, these last would be put in the genitive, dative, or ablative; and hence such infinitives may perhaps be properly regarded as exceptions to the rule, that the infinitive has but two cases, the nominative and the accusative.

Rem. 2. (a.) The infinitive with the accusative sometimes stands unconnected, especially in exclamations and indignant interrogations, where credibile est? or vērumne est? may be supplied; as, Mēne incepto desistère victam? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. Me misërum! te in tantas ærumnas propter me incidisse! Cic.—But ut, also, with the subjunctive, either with or without an interrogative particle, may be used to express a question with indignation; as, Eine (scil. patri) ēgo ut adverser? Liv. Tu ut umquam te corrigas? Cic. Jūdīcio ut ārātor dēcūmānum persēquātur? Id.; where fieri potest? may be supplied.

(b.) So, in the örātio oblīqua, the words signifying said, saying, etc., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding verb or phrase; as, Id facile effici posse, seil. dixil. Nep. Quem signum dăturum făgientibus? Curt. Rem. 3. The infinitive is sometimes to be supplied; and esse and fuisse with a predicate adjective, and also in the compound forms of the infinitive, both active and passive, are commonly omitted, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, and perceiving; as, Vos cognôvi fortes. Sall. Quem pulsum měmôrāvi. Tac.—So, also, with the infinitive perfect passive when depending on vôlo, nôlo, cúpio, and oportet; as, Adôlescenti môrem gestum oportuit. Ter. Quod jam pridem factum oportuit. Cic.—Sometimes in a relative clause an infinitive is to be supplied from the finite verb of the main proposition; as, Quos vôluit omnes interfēcit, scil. interfēcēre. Ne illam quidem consēquuntur, quam pūtant, grātium; i. e. quam se consēcūtūros pūtant. Cic.

THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

- § 271. The infinitive, without a subject-accusative, is used after verbs denoting ability, obligation, intention or endeavor; after verbs signifying to begin, continue, cease, abstain, dare, fear, hesitate, or be wont; and after the passive of verbs of saying, believing, reckoning, etc.
- Note 1. To these classes belong possum, queo. něqueo, văleo, děbeo; cūro, cōgito, děceno, stătuo, constituo, instituo, pāro; cōnor, nitor, tendo, contendo, tento, mātiro, propěro, aggredior, perskvēro, -cæpi, inctipio, pergo, děšino, děsisto, intermitto, parco, rēcūso; süleo, assuesco, consuesco, insuesco; audeo, věreor, mětuo. rěformido, timeo, horreo, důbito; -audior, credor, existimor, fêror, něgor, nuntior, pěrhibeor, půtor, trador, jübeor, videor, aud côgor.
- NOTE 2. When the preceding verbs are joined with esse, hăbēri, jūdīcāri, vīdēri, etc., the predicate noun or adjective is put in the nominative; as, Solet tristis vīdēri; aude săpiens esse; capit mihi mõlestus esse; dēbes esse dīlīgens; põtest liber esse: and so also mērētur, scit, didicit liber esse.
- Note 3. The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after fuge, aufer, cave, parce, memento; parce, réfujo, quavo, urgeo, láboro, amo, gaudeo, furo, calleo, sumo, mitto, rémitto, patior, juro, conjuro, pugno, natus, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wish or purpose; as, Introit ridére. Ter. Non te frangère perséquor. Hor. Non populare pénates venimus. Virg. In this construction, the poets are sometimes imitated by the later prose writers.
- REMARK 1. Many of the verbs above enumerated, instead of the infinitive, may be followed by the subjunctive with ut, ne, etc.; and with some of them this is the regular construction; as, Sententian ne dīceret, rēcūsāvit. Cic.
- Rem. 2. The passives dicor, trādor, féror, narror, rěpěrior, existimor, videor, etc., may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally, followed by the accusative with the infinitive. Thus we may say, Māter Pausāniæ eo tempôre vixisse dictur, or, Dictur eo tempôre mātrem Pausāniæ vixisse, The mother of Pausanias is said to have been living...or, It is said that the mother of Pausanias was living... Nep. The former construction is more common especially with videor, see § 272, R. 6; but the latter is frequent with nuntiātur, and very common with the compound tenses, trādītum est, prōdītum est, etc., and with the participle future passive; as, crēdendum est, intelligendum est, etc.; as, Quōrum nēmīnem tālem fuisse crēdendum, etc. Cic.
- REM. 3. The infinitive without a subject is used after a verb, only when it denotes an action or state of the subject of that verb.
- REM. 4. The verbs to wish or desire, vôlo, nōlo, mālo; cǔpio, opto, stǔdeo, have a twofold construction:—the infinitive without a subject-accusative is used after them, when the subject remains the same; and when followed by esse, hābēri, etc., the predicate-noun or adjective is in the nominative;—but the accusative with the infinitive is used when the subject is changed, or when a reflexive pronoun of the same person follows. We say, therefore, vôlo ērūdītus fiēri, and on the other hand, vôlo te ērūdītum fiēri, and vôlo me ērūdītum fiēri. So, Vôlo is esse, quem tu me esse vôluisti. Cic. Cūpio me esse clēmentem, cūvie—

me non dissòlutum vidēri. Id.; or, omitting the pronoun, căpio esse clēmens nec dissòlutus vidēri.—Omnis homines qui sese student præstare cetéris animālibus, etc. Sall.

Note 4. Vôlo is used with the present infinitive passive; as, Me ămārī rölo, I wish to be beloved; hoc vēlim intellīņi, I wish this to be understood; and also with the infinitive perfect passive to denote the eager desire that something should be instantly accomplished; as, Lēgāti quod ērant appellāti superbius, Cörinlhum patres vestri—exstinctum esse võluērunt. Cic.; but it occurs most frequently with the omission of esse; as, hoc factum võlo; nunc illos commonitos vēlim: so, patriam exstinctum cipil.

Note 5. The nominative with the infinitive after verbs of saying, perceiving, etc. (§ 272), is rare even in poetry, and is an imitation of the Greek idiom, which requires the nominative with the infinitive when the same subject remains; as, Phāsēlus ille, quem vīdētis, hospites, ait fuisse nāvium cēlerrimus. Catull. Quia rētūlit Ajax esse Jóvis nēpos, instead of se esse Jóvis nēpōtem. Ovid. Sensit mēdios dēlapsus in hostes, instead of se dēlapsum esse. Virg.

THE INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 272. The infinitive with a subject-accusative follows verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like; as,

Vidēbat, id non posse fiēri, He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Sentit ănimus, se suā vi, non ălienā, movēri. Cic. Audīvi te vēnīre. Me in ējus potestāte dixi fore. Id. Affirmant mīlitum jācēre ānimos. Liv. Sæpe vēnīt ad aures meas, te istud nīmis crēbro dīcēre. Cic. Eam pugnam ad Pērūsiam pugnātam (esse), quīdam auctores sunt. Liv.

Note 1. This rule includes all such verbs and phrases as denote the exercise of the external senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; as, audio, video, sentio, änimadverto, cognosco, intelligo, percípio, disco, scio, nescio, censco, spêro, despêro, côgito, júdico, crêdo, arbitror, pito, öpinor, dúco, státuo, mēmini, rēcordor, abliviscor, öpinio est, spes est, etc.;—dico, trādo, prādo, scribo, rēfēro, narro, nuntio, confirmo, nēgo, ostendo, indico, dóceo, certiorem fácio, dēmonstro, pērhibeo, prāmito, politecor, spondeo, etc.; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § 273.

Note 2. The propositions, whose subjects are thus put in the accusative and their verbs in the infinitive, are those which are directly dependent on the verbs of saying and perceiving. Respecting the clauses inserted in such dependent propositions, see § 266, 1.

Note 3. (a.) When a relative clause inserted in a proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, has the same verb as the proposition which it is inserted, but such verb is not repeated, the noun which is the subject of the relative clause is also put by attraction in the accusative; as, Te suspicor eisdem rébus, quibus me ipsum, commôvêri. If the verb is expressed we must say, eisdem rébus comnôvêri, quibus (ègo) ipse comnôver. So, also, in inserted relative clauses where the verb, if expressed, would be in the subjunctive, (see § 266, 2.); as, (Verres) airbat se tantidem æstimasse, quanti Săcerdotem, for quanti Săcerdos æstimasset. Cic. Conf îtetur se in eă parte fuisse quă te, qua virum omni laude dignum patrem tuum. Id.

(b.) The same is the case with the particle quam after a comparative, see § 256, R. 5, (a.) But sometimes when quam connects a clause to a preceding proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, the same construction follows that precedes quam, even when the verb of the latter clause is expressed; as, Nonne tibi affirmāvi quidris me pôtius perpessūrum, quam ex Italiā ad bellum cīvile me exītūrum; instead of quam exīrem or quam ut exīrem. Cic.

(c.) In long speeches in the $\bar{o}r\bar{a}tio$ obliqua, relative clauses, having a verb of their own which should properly be in the subjunctive, are put in the accusative with the infinitive, if the relative clause is not subordinate to the one with the infinitive, and which is governed by a verb of saying or perceiving,

but is rather coördinate with it; in which case the relative is equivalent to the demonstrative with et; as, Nam iliorum urbem ut prōpugnācālum oppōsitume esse barbāris, āpud quam jam bis classes rēgias fēcisse naufrāgium; for et āpud eam jam bis, etc.—In Livy and Tacitus the same construction sometimes occurs even after conjunctions; as after quum in the sense of 'while,' see § 263, 5, R. 3; after quamquam on account of its absolute signification, see § 198, 4, and after quia.

Note 4. The personal pronouns, which, with the other moods, are expressed only when they are emphatic, must be always expressed in the accusative with the infinitive. The verbs 'to promise' and 'to hope' are in English usually joined with the infinitive present without a pronoun, but in Latin not only is the pronoun expressed, but the infinitive which follows is in the future; as, 'He promised to come,' is in Latin, Prōmīsit se ventūrum (scil. esse, see § 270, R. 3). But the infinitive present sometimes occurs after these verbs; as, Pollicentur obsides dāre, Cæs. B. G. 4, 21; and the pronoun is occasionally omitted, see § 239, R. 2 and 3.

REMARK 1. When ambiguity would arise from the subject and the object of the verb being both in the accusative, the passive infinitive is substituted for the active, by which means the subject is put in the ablative, or in the accusative with per; as, Ne fando quidem auditum est, crocodilum violatum esse ab Ægyptio; instead of Ægyptium crocodilum violasse. Cic.

Rem. 2. After verbs of saying, thinking, etc., the conjunction *that* is omitted in translating from English into Latin, and the subject of the dependent clause is put in the accusative, and its verb in the infinitive.

REM. 3. The accusative with the infinitive is sometimes rendered into English by a similar form; as, Si vis me flöre, If you wish me to weep. Hor; but the dependent clause is more frequently connected to the verb of saying, etc., by the conjunction that, and the infinitive translated by the indicative or potential mood; as, Sentimus nivem esse albam, We perceive that snow is white. Cic. Sometimes the dependent clause is annexed to the other without the conjunction; as, Crēdunt se negligi, They think they are neglected. Ter.

REM. 4. A present infinitive corresponds to the imperfect indicative, when with an accusative it follows a preterite tense; as, Dixit Casarem venire, He said that Casar was coming. Cas. In like manner the perfect infinitive with an accusative after a preterite tense corresponds to the pluperfect indicative; as, Dixit Casarem venisse, He said that Casar had come. See § 268, 2.

REM. 5. The present infinitive, after verbs of sense, is often equivalent to the present participle; as, Surgĕre videt lūnam, He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma ristlāre vident. Id. Videbis collūcēre fáces. Id. Nec Zēphÿros audis spīrāre? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? Id. Sæpe hoc mājöres nātu dīcēre audīri. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Mēdium video discēdēre cælum, pālantesque pŏlo stellas. Virg.

Rem. 6. The subject-accusative after verbs of saying, showing, and believing; as, dīco, nēgo, trādo, fēro, mēmōro, narro, nuntio, pērhibeo, prōdo, scrībo, dēmonstro, ostendo, arguo, crēdo, pūto, existīmo, and the like, and also after jūbeo, vēto, and prohībeo, is regarded also as the accusative of the object after these verbs; and hence such verbs are used also in the passive, the accusative of the active voice becoming, as usual, the nominative of the passive. This is especially the case when their subject is indefinite; as, Dīcunt (they or people say) me vīrum probum esse, or dīcor vir probus esse. So, Vētīmur hoc fūcēre, instead of, Nos hoc fūcēre vētant. Instead also of the impersonal vīdētur (it appears) followed by the infinitive with its subject-accusative, it is common to say personally, vīdeor, vīdēris, etc., with the infinitive; as, vīdeor errasse, it appears that I have erred.

INFINITIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

- § 273. When the particle that, in English, introduces a clause denoting a purpose, object, or result, it is a sign of the subjunctive in Latin, and is to be expressed by ut, etc.; but otherwise it is usually the sign of the accusative with the infinitive. Cf. §§ 262 and 272.
- 1. (a.) Verbs of endeavoring and resolving take after them the infinitive and more rarely the subjunctive, when the subject remains the same; but when the subject is changed, they take the subjunctive only.
- Note 1. Such are stătuo, constituo, decerno, tento, lăboro, păro, meditor, cūro, nitor, contendo, consilium cápio, ânimum or in ânimum induco. Cf. § 271, N. 1. After operam do, I exert myself, id. hoc, or illud ägo, I endeavor, nihil antiquius hâbeo or dūco quam, nothing is of more importance to me, and video for cūro, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.
- (b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with ut or ne and the subjunctive.
- NOTE 2. Such are fácio, efficio, perficio, evinco, pervinco, impetro, assequor, consequor, etc. But fácêre 'to effect' occurs in Cic. Brut. 38, in connection with the accusative and infinitive passive.
- NOTE 3. Făcio with ut is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative; as, Invitus quidem fēci, ut L. Flāminium e sēnātu ējicērem, for invitus ējēci. Cic.—Fac, 'suppose' or 'granting,' and efficēre, 'to prove,' take the accusative with the infinitive; but the passive efficitur, 'it follows,' takes also the subjunctive.—Fācēre, 'to introduce' or 'represent,' is joined with a present or perfect participle; as, Lælium et Scipionem fācīmus admīrantes. Cic. In the passive the accusative also with the infinitive is found, there being no present participle; as, Isocrātem Plāto laudāri fācit a Sōcrāte. Cic.
- 2. Verbs signifying to request, to demand, to admonish, to advise, to encourage, to command, and the like, both when the subject remains the same and when it is changed, are followed by the subjunctive with ut or ne, and only rarely by the infinitive.
- Note 4. (a.) Such are rogo, ōro, precor, peto; posco, postulo, flagito; moneo, admoneo, commoneo, hortor, cohortor, exhortor, suadeo, persuadeo, instituo, (I instruct), impello, cogo, mando, præscribo, edico, decerno, legem do, censeo, perpello, excito, inecito, impero, etc.; as, Te non hortor solum, sed ètiam oro, ut tota mente in rempublicam incumbas. Cie.
- (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the infinitive more frequently follows those verbs without any difference of meaning. The poets even use the infinitive to express a purpose; as, *Proteus pecus egit altos* visere montes. Hor.
- (c.) Nuntio, scribo, mitto, and even dico, are followed by the subjunctive, when they imply an injunction or intention that something should be done; as, Hac ut facias, scribo. Cic.
- (d.) Jübeo and rēto commonly take the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without ut. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is omitted, especially when it is either obvious from the nature of the command or indefinite; as, Castra mūnīre jūbet, scil. mūltes. Cæs. Lex recte fūcere jūbet, scil. hūnīnes. Cic. With the subjunctive the dative of the person sometimes follows jūbeo; as, Brītannīco jūssil, exsurgēret. Tac.—Impēro is sometimes followed by the accusative with the infinitive passive; and so also is censeo, I vote, or, I ordain. The latter is often construed with the participle in dus with esse expressed or understood; as, Carthāginem dēlendam censeo.

- (e.) Moneo and admoneo, 'I remind,' and persuadeo, 'I convince,' take the accusative with the infinitive.
- 3. (a.) In the *oratio oblīqua*, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, is exchanged for that of the subjunctive, to denote possibility, liberty, duty, etc.; as,

Virginius ūnum Ap. Claudium lēgum expertem esse aiēbat: respĭcĕrent trībūnal hŏmines castellum omnium scēlērum. Liv.

- (b.) On the contrary, when the subjunctive has been used after a verb of requesting, commanding, etc., the construction often passes into that of the accusative with the infinitive; the verb of saying being considered as implied in the verb of requesting, etc.; as, Orābat ne se ut parrīcūdam tībērām āversārentur: sibi vītam fīliæ suā cāriōrem fuisse, si.... Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 2, (b.)
- 4. (a.) Verbs which denote willingness, unwillingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the infinitive, or the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.
- Note 5. Such are võlo, nõlo, mālo, opto, permitto, pătior, sīno, concēdo, Neet, prõhibeo, õportet, and nõcesse est. Cf. § 271, R. 4. Võlo ut is used to express a strong emphasis. Nõlo is not construed with the subjunctive.
- (b.) An infinitive passive without a subject is sometimes used with opertet; as, Non opertuit relictas, scil. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut èrat, mansum tămen opertuit, scil. esse. Id. Non pătābant de tāli vīro suspicionibus opertere jūdicāri. Nep.
- (c.) Some other verbs which regularly take the accusative with the infinitive after them, are occasionally followed by the subjunctive.
- 5. Quod, 'that,' commonly with the indicative, introduces a substantive clause containing the explanation or ground of the predicate or of some other word in the principal clause.

REMARK. The subjunctive follows *quod* in those cases only in which the clause expresses the view or sentiment of some other person than the writer or speaker. Cf. § 266, 3.

Quod is used:-

- (1.) After such expressions as bene, male, prūdenter facio; bene, male fit; evenit, accidit, and the like; prætereo, mitto; and generally adde, accedit, etc.; as, Bene facis, quod me adjūvas.
- (2.) To introduce the explanation of a noun, pronoun, or pronominal adverb in the principal clause; as, Magnum beneficium est nature, quod necesse est mori.
- (3.) After verbs signifying an affection of the mind, and the outward expression of such feeling; and also after verbs of praising, censuring, accusing, and thanking.
- Note 6. Such are gaudeo, dēlector, grātum, or jūcundum est mīhi, angor, döleo, agre, mõleste, or grāvīter fēro, succenseo, pænītet, mīror, admīror, glārior, grātīdor, grātīdor gao, quēror, indignor, and others of similar meaning; as, Scīpio sape quērēbātur, quod onnībus in rēbus hōmīnes dīlīgentiūres essent, ut, etc. Cic. Gaudeo quod te interpellāvl. Id. Quod spīrātis, quod vēcem mitītis, quod formas hōmīnum habētis, indignantur. Liv. Cato mīrāri se aiēbat, quod non rīdēret haruspex, hāruspīteem quum vīdēret. Cic.
- Note 7. After those verbs which express the feeling of joy, grief, etc.; as, gaudeo, dôleo, mīror, the accusative with the infinitive is more commonly found, but those which denote the outward expression of such feeling are more commonly construed with quod; but sometimes this distinction is reversed. Grātūlor is commonly joined with quod.

- NOTE 8. A purely objective proposition is expressed by quod only when it depends upon addo, (generally in the imperative adde), or upon facio joined with an adverb; as, Adde quod pūbes tibi crescit omnes. Hor. Adde hue quod mercem sine fücis gestat. Id. Fecit hūmāniter Licinius, quod ad me vespēri vēnit. Cic. In all other cases the infinitive is employed in purely objective propositions.
- By the infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, a proposition is expressed as a thought, so that it resembles an abstract noun; by quod, with the indicative or the subjunctive, it is represented simply as a fact. To the latter is frequently joined hoc, id, illud, istud, or huc, etc.; as, Illud quoque nöbis accēdit incommodum, quod M. Jūnius abest. Cic. Huc accēdēbat, quod, etc. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time, and hence it is preferable to say, Grātissinum mihi est, quod ad me tua mānu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grātissinum mihi est, quod ad me tua mānu scripsisti; but with the infinitive. mum mihi est te bene valere.
- (a.) Quod, with the indicative, in the sense of as to, or with regard to, is used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in letters, in repeating an expression of a person for the purpose of answering it; as, Quod autem me Agāmemnōnem æmūlāri pātas, fallēris. Nep. Quod scribis te velle scīre, qui sit reipublicæ stātus: summa dissensio est. Cic. Sentences thus introduced by quod are in no grammatical connection with the verb that follows them. See § 206, (14.)
- (b.) Quod is used in explanatory or periphrastic propositions which refer to a preceding demostrative pronoun, as hoc, id, etc., unless such pronoun be added pleonastically, in the nominative or accusative, to verbs governing the accusative with the infinitive; as, Mihi quidem videntur homines hac re maxime belluis præstare, quod loqui possunt. Cic.
- Note 9. The construction of the infinitive resembles, in the following particulars, that of a noun in the singular number and neuter gender:-
- (a.) Like a noun, it may have an adjective or pronoun agreeing with it; as, Tötum hoc philosophāri displicet. Cic. Quum vīvēre ipsum turpe sit nībis. Id. Me hoc ipsum nihil ăgēre dēlectat. Id. Meum intellīgēre nullā pecuniā vendo. Petr. See § 205, R. 8.

(b.) It may be followed by a limiting genitive; as, Cūjus non dīmīcāre fuit

vincere. Val. Max.

(c.) It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See §§ 209, R. 3, (5,) and 229, R. 5. It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, depending on a preposition understood; as, Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo. Ter. See §§ 232, (2,) and 273, 5. (d.) It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Vidëre est perspicere

aliquid. Cic. See § 210.

(e.) It may, like a genitive, limit the signification of an adjective or noun. See § 270, R. 1.

(f.) It may, like an accusative, depend on a preposition; as, Aristo et Pyrrho inter optime valere et gravissime ægrotare, nihil prorsus dicebant interesse. Cic. Quod crimen dicis præter amasse meum? Ovid. Inveniet nil sibi legatum, præter plorare. Hor.

(g.) It is used also like an ablative; as, Audito regem in Siciliam tendere.

(h.) Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus, (see § 274, R. 7.); as, Lörīcam dönat hābēre vīro. Virg.; or like a dative of the end, (see § 227.)

PARTICIPLES.

§ 274. 1. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs; as,

Quidam, poēta nominātus, A certain one, called a poet. Cic. Cătŭlorum oblita duam, poeta homiadas, A certain bire, canet a poet Cit. Catholin both administration of the lioness forgetful of her whelps. Virg. Faventes rūbus Carthāginiersium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginians. Liv. Tendens ad sidera palmas. Virg. Accūsātus rei capītālis. Cic. Prīmā dicte mīhi summā dīcende Cāmēnā. Hor. Omīna doctus. Stat. Cāsus ābies vīsūru mārīnos. Id. Cārtūri arbore montes. Ovid. Parcendum est tēnēris. Juv. Viendum est ætāte. Ovid. L. Brūtus arcens reditu tyrannum, in prælio concidit. Cic.

2. The present, perfect, and future active participles, denote respectively an action which is present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verb with which they are connected; as,

Simul hoc dicens attollit se. Virg. Tum ad Thraseam in hortis agentem missus est. Tac. Turnum fügientem hæc terra videbit? Virg. Qui missus ab Argis Itälä consédérat urbe. Id. Lămia mūněre ædilitātis perfunctus, pétit prætūram. Cic. Jussus cum fide pænas luam. Hor. Jūvěnis mědios moritūrus in hostes irruit. Virg. Pěritūrus injecit sese in agmen. Id. Illa tibi ventūra bella expediet. Id.

Note. The participle expresses the action or state of the verb, and also marks its complete or incomplete state or condition. Cf. § 144, 1-3. Except, however, in deponent verbs, the Latin language has no active participle denoting a completed action, equivalent to the English 'having written,' nor any passive participle denoting a state of suffering still going on, equivalent to the English present participle 'being loved.'

Remark 1. The present participle, particularly that of the verb eo, sometimes denotes that which is about to be done; as, Interclusit hiems, et terruit Auster euntes, ... as they were on the point of going. Virg. Nec nos via fallit

REM. 2. (a.) The present participle, also, sometimes denotes a purpose; as, Ibant, ōrantes věniam,....to sue for favor.... Virg. Eurypylum scītantem ōrācūla Phæbi mittīmus. Id. (b.) It is also used to express a state or condition, where, in English, a substantive is employed with a preposition; as, ignorans, from four convibinity mitems in his suit for the convibinity. ignorance; mětuens, from fear; consultitum pětens, in his suit for the consulship; omne málum nascens fácile opprimitur,—in its origin.

REM. 3. (a.) The perfect participle passive, especially in the poets, often denotes the result of a past action, and thus supplies the place of a present participle passive; as, Notus evolut piceā tectus caligine....covered with pitchy darkness. Ovid. Cf. Virg. En. 1, 480; 2, 277; 4, 72, 589; 5, 113, 708; 6, 335; Georg. 1, 204. It is often to be translated by a present active participle; as, Minu pectus percussa de forum, Haventesque abscissa comas, i. e. percutens, abscindens. Virg. Tunsæ pectora palmis. Id. So, also, solitus, ausus, fisus, and the perfect participles of deponent verbs; as, Longum cantu solāta laborem. Id. Vox audītur fractos sonitus imitāta tūbārum. Id. Divitācus Casārem complexus, obsecrāre capit. Cæs. Concrētos sanguine crīnes gērens. Virg. Tonsis in vallūus. i. e. onæ tondentur. Id. libus, i. e. quæ tondentur. Id.

(b.) The perfect participle of a preceding verb is often used in a succeeding clause, to express the completion of an action; as, Exercitum fundit fügatque, fūsum persequitur. Liv. This idiom frequently occurs in Ovid.

REM. 4. Hābeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination; as, cognitum, perspectum, perceptum, comprēhensum, explōrātum, stātātum, constitūtum, dēklbērātum, persusium mihi hābeo, etc., forms a periphrasis, like the passive verb in English, and equivalent to cognōvi, perspexi, percēpi, etc., instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clōdii ānimum perspectum or cognitum hābeo; for perspexi, etc., I perceive, know. Persuāsum mihi hābeo and persuāsisimum hābeo are used only in the neuter gender and with an accusative with the infinitive in the sense of mihi persuāsi or persuāsum mihi est. When hābeo with any other participle than those above indicated is used, it expresses more than the ordinary perfect active; as, Quod me hortīris ut absolvam; hābeo absolūtam suāve ēpos ad Cusārem; i. e. I have it ready. Cic. Do, reddo, cūro, Rem. 4. Habeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determinatěneo, possídeo, and missum făcio, are sometimes so construed with participles; as, Missam īram făciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dăre, for vincere. Sall.

- REM. 5. (a.) The passive participles may supply the place of a verbal noun in io or us, the perfect being employed to represent an action as completed, and the future when it is conceived as still incomplete; as, Ante Rōmam conditam, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia urbis delendæ, Plans for the destruction of the city. Id. See § 275, II. With the limitations about to be made in regard to the nominative, this construction is used in all the cases, and even when they are governed by the prepositions, ad, ante, ob, post, propter; ab and ex; as, Ike lière rèctiatæ magnum luctum fecerum. The reading of this letter. Liv. Tärentum captum, The taking of Tarentum. Ob rèceptum Hannibalem, On account of the reception of Hannibal. Sibi quisque casi règis expétébat décus, The glory of killing, or, of having killed the king. Propter Africam domitam. Eutrop. Ante Epāminondam nātum. Nep. Post Christum nātum. Ab conditā urbe ad libērātam. Liv. The oblique cases only of participles in dus are used in this manner as the nominative denotes necessity, (see Rem. 8,) and even the perfect participle is not thus used in the nominative by Cicero.
- (b.) The neuter of the perfect passive participle without a noun is used by Livy, as the subject of a proposition; as, Tentātum per dictātōrem, ut ambo patricii consūles creārentur, rem ad interregnum perduxit: i. e. the attempt, or the fact of the attempt being made by the dictator. Compare a similar use of this participle in the ablative, § 257, R. 9, (1.) (c.)
- (c.) The English 'without' with a verbal substantive; as, 'without writing, without having waited,' etc., is expressed in Latin by means of a negative noun, adjective or particle connected with a participle; as, Cosar exercitum nunquam per insidiosa itinèra duxit, nisi perspèculatus licorum situs, without having examined the localities. This form occurs often with the ablative absolute; as, Athènienses non exspectato auxilio adversus ingentem Persarum exercitum in practium egrédiuntur, without waiting for assistance. So, nulla presstrata die, Without fixing any time. Cic. Misèrum est nihil perficientem angi. Id.
- Rem. 6. (a.) The participle in rus, especially with verbs of motion, often denotes intention or purpose; as, Ad Jövem Ammönem pergit consultūrus de ŏrīgīne suā, He goes to Jupiter Ammon, to consult respecting his origin. Just.
- (b.) It is also used where in English a clause connected by since, when, although, etc., is employed; as, Plūra locūtūros àbīre nos jussit, When or although we intended to say more. Hercūlem Germāni, tūri in prælium cănunt. Tac. Hence it is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, to express the inference from a hypothetical proposition; as, Egréditur castris Rōmānus, vallum invāsūrus, ni cōpia puquæ fièret. And with the repetition of the preceding verb; as, Dědit mihi quantum maxime pōtuit, dātūrus amplius, si pōtuisset, i. e. ac dědisset amplius. Plin. Ep.
- Rem. 7. (a.) The participle in dus, also, denotes a purpose passively, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to deliver, to agree for, to have, to receive, to undertake, etc. Such are do, trādo, trībuo, attrībuo, mando, mith, permitto, concēdo, redmo, condūco, lico, hābeo, accipio, suscipio, rēlinguo, cūro, dēposco, rōgo; as, Testāmentum tibi trādit lēgendum, He delivers his will to you to read. Hor. Attrībuīt nos trūcīdandos Cēthējo. Cic. Quod ūtendum accēpēris, reddīto. Id. Cōnon mūros dīrūtos a Lýsandro reficiendos cūrāvit,—ordered them to be restored. Nep.
- (b.) But the same meaning may be expressed actively by means of ad and the gerund; as, Casar oppidum ad diripiendum militibus concessit.—The poets sometimes use the infinitive active for the same purpose; as, Tristitian et metus trādam protervis in mare Cuspium portare ventis. Hor. In prose such use of the infinitive is of exceedingly rare occurrence; as, Biběre dare. Cic.

REM. 8. (a.) The participle in dus, when agreeing with the subject of a sentence, has the signification of necessity or propriety; sometimes, though rarely, except in later writers, that of possibility; as,

Is venerandus a nöbis et colendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Delenda est Carthago, Carthage must be destroyed. Cato. Have speranda fuerunt. Virg. So with est used impersonally; as, Utrum pace nöbis an bello esset ütendum. Cic.

- (b.) Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, it has this signification; as, Facta narrābas dissimulanda tībi, You were relating facts which you should have concealed. Ovid. A. L. Brūto princīpe hūjus maxīme conservandi gēnēris et nominis. Cic.
- REM. 9. The participle in dus, in its oblique cases, supplies the place of a present participle of the passive voice, to denote a continued or incomplete action; as, Occupatus sum in literis scribendis, in writing letters; literally, in letters which are being written. See § 275, II.—So, also, in the poets both in the nominative and oblique cases; as, Trainia magnos volvendis mensibus orbes império explébit. Virg. Volvenda dies. Id. Cf. Volventibus annis. Id.
- REM. 10. After participles in dus, the person by whom a thing must be done, is put in the dative, but in a few passages even of Cicero it is found in the ablative with ab. See § 225, III.
- REM. 11. The neuter of the participle in dus, joined with a tense of esse in the periphrastic conjugation (see § 184, 3) retains the signification of necessity; as, Audendum est, We must venture. In early writers and sometimes also in the poets, an accusative of the object is joined with this neuter, if the verb is transitive; as, Nunc pācem ōrandum, nunc—arma rēpōnendum, et bellum extiāle cāvendum. Sil. But in classical Latin such accusative is generally changed to the nominative, and the participle is made to agree with it in gender and number. Thus, instead of virtūtem laudandum est, we usually find virtus laudanda est. The accusative in this connection is used by Cicero in only two passages. Utendum est with the ablative occurs more than once in Cicero; as, Quum suo cuīque jūdīcio sit ūtendum.
- . REM. 12. In classical prose the participle in dus never has the signification of possibility, except when joined with viz; as, Vix optandum nöbis vidēbātur. Cic. Vix ērat crēdendum, i. e. vix crēdi pōtērat. Later writers use it in this sense with negative particles, and at a later period it was used with still more frequency in the sense of possibility as well as in that of necessity.
- 3. (a.) A participle is often employed, instead of a verb, in a conditional, explanatory, adversative, relative, or other dependent clause; as,

Cūrio, ad fŏcum sĕdenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samnīles attūlērunt. Cic. Trīdui viam prōgressi, rursus rēvertērunt; for, quum prōgressi essent. Cws. Diönysius tyrannus, Syrācūsis expulsus, Cŏrinthi puēros dōcēbat. Cic. Diŏnysius, cultros mētuens tonsorios, candenti carbōne sībi ādūrēbat cápillum. Id. Rīsus interdum ita rēpente ērumpit, ut eum cūpientis tēnēre nēqueāmus. Id. Cicōniæ abītūræ congrégantur in lōco certo. Plin.

Note 1. If the participle refers to a noun not contained in the leading proposition, it is put with that noun in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 3.

Nore 2. (a.) The English clauses most frequently expressed in Latin by means of participles are such as are connected by relatives or by as, when, after, although, since, because, etc.; as, Nēmo observat lunam nisi labbrantem. Sen. Ut veilus, sie animus, se non videns, adia cernit,—though not perceiving itself. Cic. Servilius Ahdia Spūriums, Maltium, regnum apptentem, interēmit,—because he was aspiring to the sovereignty. Cic.—(b.) When a participle is connected with a relative or interrogative it can only be translated by a circumlocution; as, Non sunt eabūna dieenda, quibus abundantem lieet esse mīserrimum,—which one may possess in abundance, and still be very miscrable. Cic. Sēnātus absurdum esse dicēbat, ignūrāre rēgem, quid spīrans aut pētens vēnērit,—with what hope or request he had come. Lir.

- (b.) When two verbs are in English connected by and, and the actions denoted by them are regarded as simultaneous, one of them may be expressed in Latin by the present participle; as, He sits and holds his lute, Ille (Arīon) sēdens cithāram tēnet. Ovid. Simul hoc dicens attollīt in ægrum se fēmur. Virg. i. e. hoc dīcit et attollīt. But if one of the actions precede the other, the perfect participle must be used; as, Cæsar attacked and defeated the enemy. Cæsar hostes aggressus fūgāvīt. Submersas obrue puppes, i. e. Submerge et obrue. Virg.—When the English clause would be connected by although, the participle is often followed by tāmen. Later writers in such case join the participle gaumquam, quamvis, ētiam and vel with the participle itself; as, Cæsare millites, quamvis rēcūsantem ultro in Afrīcam sunt sēcūt. Suet.; and these are sometimes retained in the ablative absolute.—It is only in late Latin that participles are sometimes used in describing persons as possessing certain attributes, e. g. adstantes, audientes, for ii qui adstant, audiunt, i. e. the bystanders, hearers.
- (c.) A participle is used with verbs signifying to represent and perceive, especially to see and hear, when the object is described or perceived in a particular state; as, Apelles pinxit Alexandrum Magnum fulmen tenentem. Plin. In English the infinitive is often joined with verbs of seeing and hearing; as, Audivi te canentem, I heard you sing. Audivi te canere, would be, I heard that you sung. Videnus Polyphēmum vastā se mõle moventem. Virg.
- Note 3. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus, quam āmāvisset cannot be exchanged for a participle corresponding with the English having loved. As the perfect participles of deponent verbs, however, have an active signification, they admit of the participial construction. The want of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 5.

GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

§ 275. I. Gerunds are governed like nouns, and are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Mětus pārendi sībi, Fear of obeying him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror stůdio patres vestros vůdendi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your futhers. Cic. Pětendi consůlātum grātiā. Sall. Věnit ad rěcipiendum pěcůnias. Varr.

- REMARK 1. The gerund is the same in form as the oblique cases of the neuter singular of participles in *dus*, but it has the meaning of the active voice. It is sometimes translated by the present participle with a preposition, and sometimes by a present infinitive active; as, *Cousilium Lăcedemonem* occupandi, A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedæmon. Liv.
- Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituendi nulla ėrai,—of being restored. Nep. Athènas ērūdiendi grātiā missus,—for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante dŏmandum. Virg. Ades ad impĕrandum. Cic.
- REM. 3. The gerund is in its nature a verbal noun, having only the genitive, dative, ablative, and, after a preposition, the accusative. In its signification it corresponds with the English present participle when used as a verbal noun. Hence, in the oblique cases, it supplies the place of a declinable present infinitive active; but in the accusative there is this difference between the infinitive used as an accusative and the gerund, that the infinitive has simply the power of an abstract noun, whereas the gerund expresses a real action; as, Multum interest inter dare et actipère. Sen. Non sōlum ad discendum prōpensi simus, sed êtiam ad docendum. Cic.

II. When the *object* of an active verb is to be expressed, the participle in *dus* is commonly used in preference to the gerund; the object taking the case in which the gerund, if used, would have been put, and the participle agreeing with it.

Thus, to express 'the design of writing a letter,' which, with the aid of the gerund, would be represented in Latin by Consilium scribendi épistòlam, the participle in dus is commonly substituted for the gerund: and since, in this example, the gerund, (scribendi) is in the genitive, the rule requires that, in substituting the participle for the gerund, the object of the gerund (ěpistòlam) should also be put in the genitive, and that the participle (scribendus) should agree with it in gender, number, and case. Hence with the participle the expression is, Consilium scribendus épistòlas. Between the two forms of construction there is no difference of signification. So, Consilia urbis delenda (Cic.), for urbem delendi, Plans for destroying the city. Rěpărandārum classium causā (Suet.), for rěpārandi classes. Perpětiendo làbori idōneus. Colum. Ad defendendam Rōmam ab oppugnandā Cāpuā dǔces Rōmānos abstrūkère. Liv.

REMARK 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of ūtor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, and rarely of mĕdeor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, Ætas ad hæc ūtendā idōnea. Ter. Justitiæ fruendæ causā. Cic. In mūnēre fungendo. Id. Hostes in spem pŏtiundōrum castrōrum vēnērant. Cæs. Aquæ sălūbritāte mēdendisque corpŏrībus nōbiles. Vell.

Rem. 2. When a participle is thus used for a gerund, it is called a gerundive, and is usually translated like a gerund. The gerundive cannot be substituted for the gerund, where ambiguity would arise from the gender not being distinguishable. It should therefore not be used when the object of the gerund is a neuter pronoun or adjective; as, Aliquid fáciendi rátio (Cic.), not álicūjus. Artem et vēra et falsa dyūdicandi (Id.), not vērōrum dyūdicandōrum: because it would not be known whether álicūjus and vērōrum were masculine or neuter. It is to be remarked, also, that the change of the gerund into the gerundive is less frequent in some writers than in others.

III. Examples of the construction of gerunds, in each of their cases, have been already given, among other nouns, under the heads Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative. The following remarks specify in what connections they are used: and when it is said that the gerundive is governed in any of the cases like the gerund, it will of course be understood of the noun which is limited by a gerundive.

REMARK 1. The genitive of gerunds and gerundives may follow either nouns or relative adjectives; as,

Amor hābendi. Cic. Patriam spes videndi. Virg. Nam hābet nātāra, ut āliārum omnium rērum, sic vīvendi modum. Cic. Barbāra consuētādo hominum immolinadorum. Id. Postrēmo Cātilina dissīmūlandi causā aut sui expurgandi, in sēnātum vēnit. Sall. Inīta sunt consilia urbis dēlendæ, cīvium trūcīdandorum, nomīnis Romāni exstinguendi. Id. Vēnandi stūdiosi. Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insuētus nāvigandi. Cæs. Pērītus cīvītātis rēgendæ. Nep.

(1.) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently occur are amor, ars, causa, consilium, consuetudo, copia, cupiditas, desiderium, difficultas, finis, facultas, forma, gratia, illécebra, libido, locus, licentia, modus, matéria, mos, occasio, otium, potestas, ratio, spatium, spes, studium, tempus, usus, vénia, vis, voluntas.

Note 1. With these and other substantives the infinitive also may be used, when with a tense of sum they form a periphrasis for a verb which is followed by the infinitive, or supply the place of an adjective of which the infinitive is the subject; as, Quibus omnia honesta atque inhonesta vendere mos erat, With whom it was a custom, or, who were accustomed. Sall. Tempus est above, It is time, i. e. tempesticum est, it is proper to go.

- (2.) The relative adjectives, which most frequently take after them these genitives, are such as denote desire, knowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as, ārīdus, căpīdus, stādiosus, pērītus, impērītus, insuētus, certus, conscius, ignārus, rūdis, etc. See § 213, R. 1, (3.)
 - Note 2. With the relative adjectives the infinitive is also joined poetically.
- (3.) Instead of an accusative after the gerund, or a genitive plural with a gerundive, a noun or pronoun in the genitive plural is sometimes joined with the gerund; as, Exemplorum *eligendi potestas*, instead of *exempla eligendi*, or, *exemplorum eligendorum*. Cic. Earum rērum infitiandi rātio. Id. Fācultas agrorum condonandi. Cic. Nominandi istorum erit copia. Plaut.
- (4.) The pronoun tui and also the plurals vestri and sui, even when feminine, are joined with the masculine or neuter form of the gerundive in di; as, $Qu\delta$ -niam tui videudi est $\tilde{c}pia$. Plant. Non $v\tilde{v}reor$, ne quis hoc me vestri adhortandi causā magnif ice $l\delta qui$ existimet. Liv. In castra $v\tilde{e}n\tilde{e}runt$ sui purgandi causā. With the demonstrative pronouns, $\tilde{e}jus$, $h\tilde{u}jus$, illius, the participle usually agrees, but in two passages of Terence $\tilde{e}jus$, though referring to a woman, has the participle in $d\tilde{n}$, not in dx; as, Ego $\tilde{e}jus$ vtdendi $\tilde{c}upidus$ recta consequor. Ter. Tui in the first example and $\tilde{e}jus$ in the last are feminine.
- (5.) By a Greek idiom the gernnd and gerundive, after the verb sum, are sometimes found in the genitive denoting a tendency or purpose, with no noun or adjective on which they can depend; as, Rēgium impērium intito conservandæ lībertātis fuērat. Sall. Sometimes esse in some form is to be supplied; as, Quæ postquam glöriösa módo, nēque belli patrandi cognövit, scil. esse. Id. Causā or grātiā may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, also, the word on which the gerund in di depends is not expressed, and the gerund seems to be used instead of the infinitive; as, Māneat prōvinciālībus potentiam suam tāli módo ostentandi, scil. fācultas. Tac. Quum hābērem in ănimo nāvīgandi, scil. prōpōsītum. Cic.
- REM. 2. The dative of gerunds and gerundives is used after adjectives which govern a dative (§ 222), especially after those which signify usefulness or fitness; and also after certain verbs and phrases, to denote a purpose; as,

Charta empőrética est inütilis scribendo. Plin. Căpessendæ reipüblicæ hābilis. Tac. Ut nec triumviri accipiundo, nec scribæ reférundo sufficerent. Liv. Lócum oppido condendo cópére. Id. Non fuit consilium agrum cólendo aut vēnando intentum ætātem ágére. Sall. Tiběrius quási firmandæ válétūdini in Campāniam concessii. Tac. Quum solvendo ære álieno respūblica non esset. Liv. Quum solvendo civitātes non essent,—were insolvent. Cic.

- (1.) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently depends are, Städere, intentum esse, tempus impendere, tempus consumere or insumere, operam däre, sufficere, sätis esse, deesse, esse, signifying to serve for, to be adequate to, and, in later writers, on verbs of motion.—The dative of the gerund after sum is usually supposed to depend on idöneus understood; but see § 227, R. 3.
- (2.) The dative of the gerundive, denoting a purpose, is also used after names of office; as, Děcemtiri lēgibus scribendis, i. e. the ten commissioners for drawing up a code of laws. Liv. So, Cěmitia creandis děcemvíris. Id. Triumviros agro dando creat. Id.
- (3.) A purpose is more commonly expressed by ad and the accusative of the gerund, or by a clause with ut, than by the dative; as, $P\acute{e}cus$ ad vescendum $h\'{o}m\'{t}m\'{b}us$ apta. Cic.
- REM. 3. The accusative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions ad, to, or inter, during or amid, and sometimes ante, circa, or ob; as,

Ad pænítendum pröpěrat, qui cito jūdicat. Pub. Syr. Inter bibendum, While drinking. Just. Ad tölérandos făcilius lăbōres. Quint. Ad castra făcienda. Cic. Ob absolvendum. Id.

NOTE. The construction of the gerundive instead of the gerund almost invariably occurs here when the object of the gerund is to be expressed.

Rem. 4. The ablative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions a, (ab), de, e, (ex), or in; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,

Aristotelem non deterruit a scribendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non videor a defendendis hōminibus discedere. Cic. Crescit eundo. Virg. Rem querunt mercatūris făciendis. Cic. Orătionem Lătinam legendis nostris efficies plêniorem. Id.

NOTE 1. This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as, Pro vāpūlando. Plaut. Cum löquendo. Quint.

Note 2. Generally with the ablative of the means, and always with the ablative after a preposition, the gerund, when its object is to be expressed, is changed to the gerundive. In a few passages the ablative of the gerundive is differently construed; as, Nullum officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est, instead of relatione gratice. § 256. Cic. Nec jam possidendis publicis agris contentos esse. § 244. Liv. Is finis fuit ulciscenda Germanici morte,—in avenging the death of Germanicus. Tac.; where the ablative seems to imply time. § 253.

SUPINES.

- § 276. Supines, like gerunds, are verbal nouns, having no other cases except the accusative and ablative singular. In certain connections they supply the place of the present infinitive; the supine in um having an active and the supine in u a passive signification. As in the case of gerunds, we are to regard their construction both as verbs and as nouns. As verbs we are to notice their government, as nouns, their dependence.
- I. Supines in *um* are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Non Grāiis servītum mātrībus ībo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons. Virg. Te id admonītum vēnio. Plaut.

II. Supines in *um* follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote the *purpose* of the motion; as,

Cũbĭtum discessīmus. Cic. Ire dējectum mŏnŭmenta rēgis. Hor. Lēgāti vēnērunt questum injūrias, et res rēpētītum. Liv. Quum spectātum līdos īret. Nep. So after participles; as, Patriam dēfensum rēvŏcātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.

Note. The construction of the supine in um, considered as a noun, is analogous to that of names of places in answer to the question 'whither?' (§ 237), the notion of purpose arising from its verbal character.

REMARK 1. Supines in um sometimes follow verbs which do not express motion; as, Do filiam nuptum. Ter. Vos ultum injūrias hortor. Sall.

Rem. 2. The supine in um with eo literally signifies 'I go to do a thing,' and hence 'I intend,' or, 'am going to.' Instances of this use are found in Plautus and Terence and in the prose writers later than Cicero; as, Mea Glycerium, quid ägis? cur te is perditum? Why are you going to destroy yourself? Plaut. Bönörum præmia ēreptum eunt. Sall. With eo the supine in um often forms a periphrasis equivalent to the same mood and tense of the verb from which the

supine is formed; as, Ne bonos omnes perditum eant (Sall.), for perdant. Ereptum eunt (Id.), for ēripiunt. Ultum īvit (Tac.), for ultus est. Ultum īre injūrias festīnat, i. e. ulcisci. Sall.

REM. 3. The supine in um most frequently occurs with the infinitive iri, with which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, $Br\bar{u}tum$ visum iri a me $p\bar{u}to$. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and $\bar{i}ri$ is used impersonally; 'I suppose that I am going to see Brutus.' § 184, 2, (a.) Its notion of futurity is derived from the proper signification of the active voice, as perditum $\bar{i}ri$, to go to destroy, the idea of intending passing easily into that of futurity.

REM. 4. But to express a purpose Latin writers in general prefer using a gerund or gerundive in the accusative with ad or in the genitive with causa or gratia, a subjunctive clause with ut or qui, a present or future active participle, and sometimes poetically an infinitive. See § 275, R. 1, 2: §§ 262, 264, 274, and 271.

III. The supine in u is used to limit the meaning of adjectives signifying wonderful, agreeable, easy or difficult, worthy or unworthy, honorable or base, and a few others; as,

Mīrābile dictu! Wonderful to tell, or to be told! Virg. Jūcundum cognītu atque audītu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fācilis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Fācilia inventu. Gell. Incrēdibile mēmŏrātu. Sall. Turpia dictu. Cic. Optīmum factu. Id.

Note. The principal supines in u in common use are audītu, cognītu, dictu, factu, inventu, mēmorātu and nātu, which occurs in the expressions, grandis, mājor, minor, maximus, and minimus nātu. In magno nātu, of an advanced age, and maximo nātu filius, the eldest son, nātu is the ablative of a verbal substantive, since neither gerunds nor supines are joined with adjectives.

REMARK 1. The principal adjectives, after which the supine in u occurs, are affābilis, arduus, asper, bōnus, deformis, dignus, indignus, dulcis, dūrus, fācilis, diffīcilis, fādus, grāvis, hōnestus, horrendus, incrēdībilis, jūcundus, injūcundus, magnus, mēmōrābīlis, mollis, proclīvis, pulcher, rārus, turpis, and ātīlis.

REM. 2. The supine in u is used also after the nouns fas, ne fas, and opus; as, Hoe fas est dictu. Cic. Ne fus dictu. Ovid. Dictu opus est. Ter.—In the following examples it follows a verb: Pudet dictu. Tac. Agr. 32. Dictu fastidienda sunt. Val. Max. 9, 13, 2.

Rem. 3. As the supine in u is commonly translated by a passive form, it is placed under the passive voice; but, in many cases, it may with equal or greater propriety be translated actively. As a noun, its construction may be referred to the ablative of limitation. \S 250.

REM. 4. (a.) Instead of the supine in u, an infinitive, a gerund or gerundive with ad, or a verbal noun in the ablative, and sometimes in the dative or accusative, may be used; as, Ardua imitatu, cētērum cognosci ūtilia. Val. Max. Illud autem fācile ad crēdendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptione dignum. Plin. Agua pōtui jūcunda. Id. Fācilior ad intellectum atque imitationem. Quint. With āpus est the perfect passive participle is often used instead of the supine in u; as, Opus est mātūrāto, There is need of haste. Cf. § 243, R. 1.

(b) The construction with ad and the gerund; as, res făcilis ad intelligendum; or with sum and the infinitive active; as, făcile est invenire, is used by the best writers after făcilis, difficilis, and jūcundus. The most common construction of dignus is with qui and the subjunctive, (§ 264, 9), but the poets

and later prose writers have joined it with the infinitive passive.

ADVERBS.

§ 277. I. Adverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs; as,

Běne mones, You advise well. Ter. Fortissime urgentes, Most vigorously pressing on Plin. Male narrando. Ter. Longe dissimilis. Cic. Valde běne. Id.

REMARK 1. Adverbs may also modify nouns, when they are used as adjectives or participles, and accordingly denote a quality, or when a participle is understood. They are also joined to adjective pronouns, when their adjective-character predominates; and sometimes limit the meaning of a preposition; as, Pōpūlus lāle rea, for lāle regnans,—ruling far and wide. Virg. Nīhil admōdum, Nothing at all. Cic. Hōmo plāne noster,—entirely ours, that is, devoted to us. Id. Homērus plāne ōrātor. Id. Admōdum puella. Liv. Lāte týrannus. Hor. Grāvībus superne ictībus conflictābantur, i. e. sūperne accīdentībus. Tac. Multārus circa civitātum, i. e. neighboring cities. Liv.

REM. 2. (a.) Most of the modifications made by adverbs may also be made by means of the various cases of nouns and adjectives, and many modifications may be made by these, for expressing which no adverbs are in use. In general those limitations which are most common can be expressed by adverbs; as, sapienter for cum sapientia; hic for in hoc loco; bene for in bono modo; nunc for hoc tempore.—(b.) The following are examples of other parts of speech used adverbially, viz. Nihil, 'in no way'; nonnihil, 'in some measure'; quidquam, 'at all'; aliquid, 'somewhat'; quid?' why?'

Rem. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,

Non pārēre noluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud ignāra māli, Not ignorant of evil. Virg. Haud nihil est, It is something. Ter. Nec hoc ille non vidit, And this he clearly perceived. Cic. So, nonnulli, some; nonnumquam, sometimes. Non, before a negative word, commonly heightens the affirmative sense, while it softens the expression; as, Hómo non indoctus, i. e. hómo sāne doctus. Non sēmel, i. e. sæpius; non ignāro, non nescio, non sum nescius, I know very well. Qui mortem in mālis pōnit, non pōtest eam non tīmēre,—must needs fear it. Cic.

Rem. 4. When the subject and predicate of a proposition are both modified by negative words, and also when the predicate contains two negatives, the proposition is affirmative; as,

 $N\bar{e}mo\ non\ videt$, Every one sees. Cic. Něque hac non $\bar{e}v\bar{e}n\bar{e}runt$, And this indeed took place. So, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative; as, $N\bar{e}mo\ est$, $qui\ nesciat$, Every body knows. Cic.

Rem. 5. (a.) But in the case of non followed by ne—quidem, the two negatives do not destroy each other; as, Non fugio ne hos quidem mõres: and when the negative leading proposition has subordinate subdivisions with nèque—nèque, nève—nève, or non—non, these negative particles are equivalent to aut—aut; as, Non me carminibus vincet, nec Orpheus, nec Linus. Virg. Nēminem, non re, non verbo, non vultu dēnique offendi. Cic. Nullius rei nèque præs, nèque manceps factus est. Nep.

(b.) In a few passages, however, two negatives in Latin, as in Greek, strengthen the negation, and this exception appears to have been derived from the language of common life; as, Jūra te non nöcītūram hömīni nēmīni. Plaut.

(c.) Nēmo, nullus, nīhil, and numquam have a different sense according as the non is placed before or after them; as, Non nēmo, some one; nēmo non, every one; non nulli, some; nullus non, every; non nīhil, something; nīhil non, every thing; non numquam, sometimes; numquam non, at all times. So, nusquam non, every where, but instead of nonnusquam, ālīcūbi is used.

REM. 6. (a.) Non is sometimes omitted after non modo or non solum, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quidem, if both clauses have the same verb, and if the verb is contained in the second clause; as,

Mihi non mödo īrasci, sed ne dölēre quīdem impūne līcet, which is equivalent to Mihi non modo non īrasci, sed ne dölēre quīdem impūne līcet, or Mihi non modo īrasci, sed dölēre quīdem impūne non līcet, Not only am I not permitted to be angry, but not even to grieve with impunity. Cic. Quum sēnātui non sōlum jūvāre rempūblīcam, sed ne lūgēre quīdem līcēret. Id.

(b.) Non is also rarely omitted after non mödo when followed by sed or vērum with ěliam, and also after vix; as, Qui non mödo ea fütüra timet, vērum ětiam fert, sustinetque præsentia, Who not only does not fear.... Cic. Hæc genera virtūtum non sõlum in mõribus nostris, sed vix jam in libris rēpēriuntur, These virtues are not only not found in life, but scarcely in books. Id.

REM. 7. Fácile, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir ūnus tātius Græciæ facile doctissimus. Cic. Homo rēgiānis illius virtūte facīle princeps. Id.

Rem. 8. Sentences are often united by means of an adverb which is repeated before each of the connected clauses; as, modo—modo, and nunc—nunc, sometimes sometimes); as, Modo hoc, modo illud dict; modo huc, modo illuc volat. Instead of the second modo other particles of time are sometimes used; as, aliquando, nonnunquam, interdum, sepius, tum or deinde.—Partim—partim, 'part-ly—partly,' is sometimes used with a genitive or the preposition ex, in the sense of alii—alii, as a nominative in all the genders; as, Quum partim e nobis ita timidi sunt, ut, etc., partim ita rēpūblicā āversi, ut, etc.—Simul—simul, 'as well—as,' like nunc—nunc, is not found in Cicero.—Quā—quā is equivalent to et—et.—Tum—tum is used sometimes like modo—modo, sometimes like partim—partim; as Erumpunt sæpe vitia āmīcōrum tum in ipsos āmīcos, tum in āliēnos. Cic. Hac (bēnēficia) tum in ūniversam rempūblicam, tum in singūlos cīves confēruntur. Id.

REM. 9. Quum—tum is equivalent to et—et, except in assigning a greater importance to the second part: hence it must be translated by 'both—and especially,' 'not only—but also,' or 'but more particularly.' Sometimes additional weight is given to the second part by means of vēvo, certe, ētiam, quóque, præcipue, imprimis or maxime. This use of quum—tum seems to have had its origin in the use of quum with the subjunctive and often with the indicative in the protasis, followed by tum in the apodosis. When quum followed by tum serves to express the opposition between single words which have the same verb, it is to be regarded as a complete adverb; as, Fortūna quum in rēliquis rēbus, tum præcipue in bello plūrimum pōtest. Sometimes the verb stands in the first part of the sentence; as, Quum omnis arrōgantia ōdiōsa est, tum illa ingēnii atque ēlōquentiæ multo mōlestissima. Tum is sometimes repeated in the second part of the sentence; as, Quem pāter mōriens quum tūtorībus et prōpinquis, tum lēgībus, tum œquitāti māgistrātuum, tum jūdēciis vestris commendātum pūtāvit. Cic. Sometimes the gradation is, quum—tum—tum vēro.

REM. 10. Non mödo—sed ětiam (or non sõlum, or non tantum—vērum ětiam) generally expresses the transition from less important to more important things, like the English 'not only—but (also)'. The transition from greater to smaller things is expressed by non mödo—sed, without the ětiam, which we render in English by 'I will not say—but only,' and in Latin, too, we may say non dīcam or non dīco—sed; as, Quid est ěnim mīnus non dīco ōrātōris, sed hōmīnis.

Rem. 11. Tam—quam expresses a comparison in degree; as, Nēmo tam multa scripsit, quam multa sunt nostra. With superlatives they are rendered into English by 'the—the' and comparatives; as, Vêternôsva quam plūrīmum bibit, tan maxime sītit, The more he drinks, the more he thirsts. Cato. Quam quisque pessine fēcit, tam maxime tūtus est. Sall.—Tam—quam quod maxime signifies, 'as much as possible.'—Non tam—quam signifies, 'not so much—as,' or 'less—than'; as, Prōvincia non tam grātiōsa et illustris, quam nĕgōtiōsa ac mòlesta. Cic.

REM. 12. Non minus—quam and non mägis—quam are equivalent to æque—ac, 'as much as,' but in non mägis—quam the greater weight is attached to the affirmative clause beginning with quam; as, Alexander non dücis mägis quam

mīlitis mūnia exsēquēbātur, Alexander performed as much the service of a soldier as that of a commander. In this connection plus frequently supplies the place of măgıs.

- (a.) Sic and ita are demonstrative adverbs corresponding to the relative ut. The restrictive meaning of ita (see § 191, R. 5.), is sometimes made more emphatic by the addition of timen. Tratus is used in a like restrictive sense; as, Præsidii tantum est, ut ne mūrus quidem cingi possit, i. e. 'only so much.' Cæs.
- (b.) Ut—ita or sic places sentences on an equality. They may sometimes be translated 'although—still,' or 'indeed—but.'—The adverb ut, 'as,' sometimes takes the signification of the conjunction quod, 'because'; as, Atque ille, ut semper fuit apertissimus, non se purgāvit. Cic.
- REM. 13. In an enumeration, prīmum, deinde, tum, dēnīque are commonly preferred to the numerals, prīmum, sēcundo, (for sēcundum is not often used), tertium, quartum, etc., unless the strict succession of the numbers is required. Sometimes tum is used once or twice instead of deinde, or the series is extended by accēdit, huc adde, etc. Sometimes dēnīque is followed by postrēmo to form the conclusion of a series, but often dēnīque without the other adverbs concludes a series, and is then equivalent to 'in short' or 'in fine.' See Cic. Cat. 1, 5.
- REM. 14. Minus is often used for non; as, Nonnumquam ea, quæ prædicta sunt, minus ēvēniunt. Cic.—So, si minus—at, 'if not—yet;' and sin minus, 'but if not,' without a verb, after a preceding si; but with si non the verb is repeated.—The English 'how little' is in Latin quam non; and 'so little,' ita non or adeo non; as, adeo non carabat, quid homines de se lóquerentur.

REM. 15. Nunc always expresses the time actually present, or the time to which a narrator transfers himself for the purpose of making his description livelier. Thus in speaking of the present time we may say, Nunc primum somnia me elüdunt or elüserunt; but in a narrative we must say, Somnia tunc primum se dicebat elüsisse. Compare the use of hic and ille. See § 207, R. 23, (c.)

Rem. 16. The conjunction dum, 'while,' when added to negatives, becomes an adverb, signifying 'yet'; as, nondum, 'not yet'; needum, 'and not yet'; nullusdum, 'no one yet'; nihildum, 'nothing yet.' Hence vixdum signifies 'scarcely yet'; as, Vixdum ēpistōlam tuam lēgēram, quam ad me Curtus vēnit. Cic.—Se, also, the conjunction visi, by omitting its varb or uniting it with the leading verb, acquires, after negatives and negative questions, the sense of the adverb 'except,' which is generally expressed by prveterquam or the preposition prveter, and must be so expressed when no negative procedes. But the expression 'except that' may be rendered either by visi quod or prveterquam quod.—After whil âliud we may nse either visi or quam, visi referring to 'nihil and quam to āliud. Hence wihil āliud visi signifies 'nothing further,' or 'nothing more,' and wihil āliud quam, 'nothing else,' or 'no other thing but this.'

REM. 17. U, 'as,' in interposed clauses, such as ut \check{opinor} , ut \check{puto} , ut censeo, ut critical, is frequently omitted. \check{Crito} , used in this manner often takes an ironical sense.

PREPOSITIONS.

- II. 1. See respecting the construction of prepositions with the accusative, \S 235; and with the ablative, \S 241. See, also, for the different meanings of prepositions, \S 195, and for their arrangement, \S 279, 10.
- 2. Two prepositions must not be joined in Latin, as they sometimes are in English, with the same noun; as, to speak for and against a law; or, I have learned this with, and, to some extent, from him. These sentences may be thus expressed in Latin; pro lige et contra legem dicère; hac cum eo, partim étiam ab eo didici. Those dissyllabic prepositions only, which are sometimes used as adverbs, may follow another, without being joined with a case; as, Quod aut sécundum nätürum esset, aut contra. Cic. Cis Padum ultrâque. Liv Cæsar reverses the order, Intra extrăque mănitiones. B. Civ. 3, 72.

3. When nouns mutually dependent upon a preposition are in apposition, when they constitute an enumeration without a connective, and when connected by copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or comparative conjunctions, the preposition is not repeated, unless such nouns are to be distinguished from each other, or are emphatic; as,

Quid dicam de thesauro omnium rērum, měmŏria? Hoc appāret in bestiis, võlucrībus, nantībus, agrestībus, cicūrībus, fēris, ut se ipsæ dīlīgant. Cic. Sæpissīme inter me et Scīpiōnem de āmīctītā dissērēbātur. Id. Quid fācēres si n álīquam dŏmum villamve vēnisses? Id. Nīhil per īram aut cūpīdītātem actum est. Id. Thémistocles non mīnus in rēbus gērendis promptus quam exco-

gitandis ěrat. Nep.

- 4. The monosyllabic prepositions ab, ad, de, ex, and in are often used before each of two nouns connected by et, etc., especially if the qualities denoted by such nouns are to be considered separately. If the nouns are separated by et—et, nec—nec, etc., the prepositions must be repeated; as, Ut $e\bar{o}$ rum et in bellicis et in civilibus officiis vigeat industria. Cic.—Inter is frequently repeated by Cicero after interesse, and other writers repeat it after other verbs also; as, Quid intersit inter populatem—civem, et inter constantem, severum et grávem. Cic. Certātum inter Ap. Claudium maxime f erunt et inter P. Décium. Liv.
- 5. (a.) In poetry a preposition is occasionally omitted with the first of two nouns, and put with the second only; as, Qua němőra, aut quos ágor in spěcus, (Hor.) for, in qua němóra aut in quos spēcus ágor. So, Hor. Ep. 2, 1, 25.—(b.) An ellipsis of a preposition with the relative pronoun sometimes occurs, together with that of the verb belonging to the preceding demonstrative; as, In eadem ŏpīniōne fui, quā rēliqui omnes, (Cic.), properly in quā rēliqui omnes fuērunt.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 278. Copulative, disjunctive, and other coördinate conjunctions, connect similar constructions.

NOTE 1. Clauses are similarly constructed, which are mutually independent, whose subjects and verbs are in the same case and mood, and which have either no dependence or a similar dependence on another clause.

Note 2. (a.) Words have a similar construction, when they stand in the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Hence,

(b.) Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns, dependent, if the cases are oblique, upon the same government; the same number, case, and gender of adjectives, belonging to the same noun; the same nuod of verbs, either independent, or alike dependent; adverbs qualifying the same verbs, adjectives, etc.; and prepositions on which depends the same noun or pronoun; as, Concidunt venti, fügiuntque nübes. The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Lōcum, quemet non cōguit sol, et tangit vos. Varr. Lūdi dēcem per dies, facti sunt, nēque ves ulla pretermissa est. Cic. Vīdes, ut altā stet nīve candīdum Sōracte, nec jam sustīneant ŏnus silvæ lūbōrantes, gēlūque flūmina constitērint ácūto. Hor. Intelligitis et āimmum ei præsto fuisse, nec constilum dēfuisse. Cic. Gēnēri āmmantium ommi est a nātūrā tribūtum, ut se tueātur, dēclīnetque ea, quæ nōcitūra vīdeantur. Id. Aut nēmo, aut Cūto sāpiens fuit. Id. Pulvis et umbra sāmus. Hor. Sī tu et Tullia vālētis, ēgo et Cīcēro vālēmus. Cic. Aggēre jacto turrībusque constitūtis. Cæs. Clārus et hōnōrātus vir, An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Cæsar Rēmos cōhortātus, lībērāliterque ōrātiōne prošeēcūtus. Cæs. Pāter tuus, quem cōlui et dīlexi. Cic. Belgæ spectant in septentriōnem et ŏrientem sōlem. Cæs. Nāvībus junctis, rātībusque complūrībus factis. Id. Lēge, vet tābellas redde. Plaut. Allobroges trans Rhōdānum vīcos possessionesque hābībant. Cæs. Quum triumphum ēgēris, censorque fūeris, et ōbiēris lēgātus. Id. Quum ad oppīdum accessisset, castrāque ibi pōnēret. Cæs.

Ades čnimo, et čmitte timõrem. Cic. Ea vidēre ac perspīcčre põtestis. Id. Graviter et copiüse dixisse dicitur. Id. Cum frātre an sine. Id. Cf. § 277, II. 2. Cui carmina cordi, nămērosque intendēre nervis. Virg. Nec census, nec clārum nomen āvorum, sed probitas magnos ingeniumque făcit. Ovid. Philosophi negaut quemquam virum bonum esse, nisi sapientem. Cic. Gloria virtūtem tamatar musta virum tal. quam umbra sequitur. Id.

REMARK 1. Copulative conjunctions may connect either single words and phrases or entire clauses; the other conjunctions, whether coördinate or subordinate, connect clauses only.

REM. 2. Words thus connected are sometimes in different cases, though in the same construction; as, Meā et reīpūblicæ intérest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sive es Rōmæ, sive in Epīro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254. But see also § 221, Note.) In Mettii descendat jūdicis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See § 211, R. 3. In like manner, Hannibal non äliter vinci põtuit, quam mõrā.

Rem. 3. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be connected by coordinate conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

REM. 4. Where the purpose of the writer requires it, coordinate conjunctions sometimes connect independent propositions, whose verbs are in different moods; as, Stuporem hominis, vel dīcam pēcudis, vidēte. Cic. Nec satis scio, nec, si sciam, dicere ausim. Liv.

Rem. 5. Et is used after multi followed by another adjective, where in English 'and' is usually omitted; as, Multe et magne arbores, Many large trees. In such cases et supplies the place of et is, introducing a more accurate description. See § 207, R. 26, (c.)

REM. 6. The conjunction is often omitted; as, (a.) When two single words, as comprehending the whole idea, are opposed to each other, as, relim, nolim, whether I would or not; maxima minima, the greatest as well as the least; prima postrēma, from the first to the last; dignos indignos adire; ire redire, to go to and fro. Ædificiis omnībus pūblicis prīvātis, sacris profānis sic pēpercit. Cic. Nam gloriam, honorem, impērium bonus ignāvus æque sibi exoptant. Sall.

C. 11.

(b.) Et is very frequently omitted between the names of two colleagues; as, Consüles declarati sunt Cn. Pompeius M. Crassus. P. Lentülo L. Triario, quasstoribus urbānis. Cic. Sometimes, also, when the two persons are not colleagues. It is also occasionally omitted between two words in the oratorical style; as, Aderant âmūci, prophuqua. Id.; also with verbs; as, Adsunt, queruntur Sicüli. Id. In good prose, if three or more substantives are joined, it is usual either wholly to omit the conjunction or to insert it between each. The following may serve as an example of both cases: Qui non modo Curiis, Cătonibus, Pompeiis, antiquis illis, sed his recentibus, Măriis et Dīdiis et Caliis commemorandis jacebant. This is also the common practice with adjectives and verbs, and hence when et has not previously occurred in an enumeration of persons or things, we should not conclude the enumeration with et ălii, et reliqui, et cctera, etc., but should make use of the adjectives alone, difficiently eteror, etc. But though et, ac and atque are not used alone in the third or fourth place, yet the enclitic que frequently occurs in this position; as, Precor ut ea res vobis pacem, tranquillitatem, oitum, concordianque afferat. Cic. Et may be supplied also when two protases introduced by si are joined together; where we say 'if—and if,' or 'if—and.' See an example in Cic. Off. 3, 9.

(c.) An ellipsis of ut is supposed when we precedes and et alone or one is

(c.) An ellipsis of ut is supposed when ne precedes and et, atque, or que is used to continue the sentence, those copulative conjunctions in such case obtaining the meaning of the adversative sed; as, Monere capit Porum, ne ultima

expěriri persěvěrarct, děděretque se victori. Curt.

REM. 7. Copulative conjunctions are often used, before each of two or more connected words or clauses, in order to mark the connection more forcibly; as, Et pécunia persuadet, et gratia, et auctoritas dicentis, et dignitas, et postremo aspectus. Quint. Hoc et turpe, nec tamen tutum. Cic. Neque nata est, et aterna est. Id. Et tibi et nihi voluptati fore. Id. Before clauses the disjunctive conjunctions are used in a similar manner; as, Res ipsa aut invitābit aut dēhortābitur. Id. So, also, nunc...nunc, simul...simul, partim...partim, quā...quā, tum... tum, quum...tum, are used before successive clauses.

REM. 8. To connect different names of the same person or thing, sive or seu, rather than aut or vel, is employed; as, Mars sive Māvors. Cf. § 198, 2, (c.)

REM. 9. Instead of et and ut with the negatives nēmo, nīhil, nullus, and numquam, nēque (or nec), and ne are used with the corresponding affirmative words quisquam, ullus, unquam, and usquam. But 'in order that no one' is rendered in Latin by ne quis and not by ne quisquam, see § 207, R. 31, (a.); as, Hōræ quidem cēdunt, et dies, et menses, et anni: nec pretēritum tempus unquam rēvertitur. Cic. Sēnādus dēcrēvit, dārent ôpēram consūles, ne quid respūblica dētrīmenti cāpēret. Cæs.

REM. 10. The conjunctions igitur, vērum, vērumtămen, sed, and sed tămen, indicate a return to the construction of the leading clause, when it has been disturbed by the insertion of another clause. These conjunctions, in such connection, are usually rendered by 'I say,' and sometimes in Latin inquam is so used. Nam also is occasionally employed in this way and very rarely ttăque.

Rem 11. Vēro and autem are frequently omitted in adversative clauses, especially in short ones; as, Vincēre scit Hannībal, victōriā ūti nescit. Liv. This omission often occurs in describing a progress from smaller to greater things, as in Cic. Cat. 1, 1. And it is to be remarked that non in the second member of such adversative sentences is used without et or vēro; as, ăliēna vītia vīdet, sua non vīdet. But in unreal suppositions or ironical sentences, where the second member contains the truth, et non or ac non must be used, where we may supply 'rather'; see § 198, 1, (c.); as, Quăsi nunc id ăgātur,—ac non hoc quærātur. Cic.

INTERJECTIONS.

Respecting the construction of interjections with the nominative, see § 209, R. 13:—with the dative, § 228, 3:—with the accusative, § 238, 2:—and with the vocative, § 240.

ARRANGEMENT.

I. OF THE WORDS OF A PROPOSITION.

- § 279. 1. In arranging the parts of a proposition in English, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and the words which modify or limit it; next, the verb and its modifiers; then, the object of the verb; and finally, prepositions and the words depending upon them. This is called the logical or natural order.
- 2. (a.) In Latin, either of the four principal parts of a sentence may be placed first, and there is great freedom in the arrangement of the rest, but with this general restriction in prose, that words which are necessary for the complete expression of a thought should not be separated by the intervention of other words. In ordinary discourse, especially in historical writing, the following general rule for the arrangement of the parts of a sentence is for the most part observed.
- (b.) In a Latin sentence, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and its modifiers; then, the oblique cases and other words which depend upon or modify the verb; and last of all, the verb.

(c.) Hence a Latin sentence regularly begins with the subject and ends with the principal verb of its predicate; as, Dumnörix grātiā et largūtiōne āpud Sēquānos plūrīmum pōtērat. Cæs. But the verb is often not placed at the end of a sentence, especially if the sentence is long, or if two many verbs would be thus brought together at the end. In the familiar style, also, the verb is often placed earlier in the sentence, and in explanatory clauses it is sometimes placed at the very beginning of the proposition, in which case a conjunction is generally added.

(d.) It is also to be remarked, as a further modification of the general rule of arrangement, that, in sentences containing the expression of emotion, the word whose emphasis characterizes it as especially affecting the feelings, or as forming a contrast, is placed at the beginning; as, Cito āvescit lacrīma, præsertim in āliēnis mālis, Quickly dries the tear, especially when shed for other woes. Cic. Sna vila instpicutes et suam culpam in sénectütem conférunt. Id.

- (e.) If there be no emotive or pathetic word requiring prominence, the place at the end of the proposition is reserved for the significant word, that is, the word which is to be most strongly impressed upon the understanding or memory; as, Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partes tres. Cæs. Quod ante id tempus accidirat nuquam. Id. Quod āliud iter hābērent nullum. Id. Quæ virtus ex providendo est appellāta prādentia. Cic.
- 3. (a.) Connectives generally stand at the beginning of the clause which they introduce, and with the following this is their only position; viz. et, ĕtĕnim, ac, at, atque, atqui, nĕque or nec, aut, vel, sīve, sin, sed, nam, vērum, and the relatives quāre, quōcirca, and quamobrem.
- (b.) Most other connectives generally stand in the first place, but when a particular word is peculiarly emphatic, this word with all that belongs to it stands first, and the conjunction follows it. Ut, even when there is no particular emphasis, is commonly placed after vix, pene, and prope, and also after the negatives nullus, nemo, nihil, and the word tantum. In Cicero, itaque stands first and igitur is commonly placed after the first, and sometimes after several words.
- (c.) Autem, ěnim, and vēro (but), are placed after the first word of the clause, or after the second, when the first two belong together, or when one of them is the auxiliary verb sum; as, Ille ěnim rěvócátus rěsistěre cæpit. Cæs. Ego vēro vellem, affuisses. Cic. Incrēdibile est ěnim, quam sit, etc. Id. They rarely occur after several words; as, Cur non de integro autem dătum. Id. The enclitics que, ne, ve, are usually subjoined to the first word in a clause; but when a monosyllabic preposition stands at the beginning, they are often attached to its case; as, Rōmam Cāto dēmigrāvīt, in förēque esse cæpit; and this is always the case with a, ad and ob. So, also, for the sake of euphony, Apud quosque. Cic.
- (d.) Quidem and quoque, when belonging to single words, are always subjoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Verbo ille reus erat, re quidem vero Oppianicus. Cic. Me scilicet maxime, sed proxime illum quoque féfellissem. Id. In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic word; as, Ne ad Cătonem quidem provocabo. Cic.—Quidem is sometimes attracted from the word to which it properly belongs to a neighboring pronoun; as, Tibique persuade, esse te quidem mihi carissimum, sed multo fore cariorem, si, etc., instead of, te carissimum quidem mihi esse.—Prepositions and conjunctions belonging to the word on which the emphasis rests are placed with it between ne and quidem; as, Ne in fanis quidem. Cic. Ne si dubitetur quidem. Id. Ne quum in Sicilia quidem fuit. Id.; and even Ne cūyus rei arguerētur quidem.—So, also, in Cicero, non nisi, 'only,' are separated; and the negative may even be contained in a verb.
- (e.) The preceding rules respecting the position of connectives are often violated by the poets, who place even the prepositive conjunctions after one or more words of a proposition; as, Et tu, potes nam, etc.. Hor. Vivos et rödëret

- ungues. Id. They even separate et from the word belonging to it; as, Audire et videor pios errare per lucos. Id. So, Auctius atque dis mélius fécère. Id. And they sometimes append que and ve neither to the first word, nor to their proper words in other connections; as, Messallam terra dum séquiturque màri, instead of terra màrique. Tib. In such arbitrary positions, however, these conjunctions are almost invariably joined to verbs only.
- 4. When a word is repeated in the same clause, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together; as, Homines hominibus maxime ütiles esse possunt. Cic. Equites alii alio chlapsi sunt. Liv. Lēgūtque vīrum vir. Virg. Mānus mānum lávat. Petr. So, also, the personal and possessive pronouns; as, Sēquĕre quo tua te nātūra dūcit. Suum se nēgūtium āgĕre dīcunt.
- 5. Words used antithetically are also placed near each other; as, Dum tăcent, clămant. Cic. Frăgile corpus ănimus sempiternus mövet. Id.
- 6. Inquam and often aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted; as, 'Non nosti quid păter,' inquit, 'Chrysippus dicat.' Hor.' Quid,' aio, 'tua crimina prödis?' Ovid. When a nominative is added to inquit ti usually follows this verb; as, Mihi vero, inquit Cotta, vidētur. Cic.—Dicit and dixii are used like inquit only by the poets.
- 7. (a.) The adjective may be placed before or after its noun according as one or the other is emphatic, the more emphatic word being placed before the other. When any thing is dependent on the adjective, it usually follows its noun. When a noun is limited by another noun, as well as by an adjective, the adjective usually precedes both; as, Ulla officii pracepta. Cic. Tuum erga dignitätem meam südium. Id.
- (b.) Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, médius, etc., when signifying the first part, the middle part, etc., (see § 205, R. 17), usually precede their nouns; as, Ea res. Cæs His ipsis verbis. Cic. Média nox. Cæs. Kěliqua Ægyptus. Cic.
- 8. Monosyllables are usually prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clārissīmus. Cic. Di immortāles. Res innumērābīles. Vis tempestātis. Cæs.
- 9. (a.) When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines the other is generally put last, unless it is to be made cmphatic; as, Opes irritamenta mālõrum. Ovid. Hence names of honors or dignities, and every thing of the nature of a title, are commonly placed after the proper name, as explanatory additions. Thus, especially, the names of changeable Roman dignities, as, Čicēro consul; C. Čāriðni tribūno plēbis; but also permanent appellations; as, Ennius poēta; Plāto philōsõphus; Diōnysius tyrannus; and such epithets as vir hõnestissimus; hõno doctissimus. But the hereditary title rex is frequently placed before the name; as, rex Dēiōtārus; and so the title Impērātor after it became permanent.
- (b.) In the arrangement of the Roman names of persons, the prænomen stands first, next the nomen or name of the gens, third the cognomen or name of the fundia, and last the agnomen; as, Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus. The prenomen is usually denoted by a letter. In the imperial times the nomen is often either omitted or follows as something subordinate.
- 10. (a.) Oblique cases precede the words on which they depend, but they follow prepositions; as,

Populi Romani luus est. Cic. Laudis ărtdi, pecuniæ liberāles. Sall. Cunctis esto benignus, nulli blandus, paucis fămiliāris, omnibus æquus. Sen. Monumentum ære perennius. Hor. Hanc tibi dono do. Ter.—Ad měridiem spectans. Cic. Extra periculum. Id.

(b.) Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last; as, Incerta fortūna. Liv. Nec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest. Ovid.

Remark. This rule, so far especially as it relates to genitives, is in a great degree arbitrary, as the position of the governed and governing words depends on the idea to be expressed; thus, mors patris tui, contrasts the death with the preceding life; but, fratris tui mors distinguishes this case of death from others. Hence we say, animi motus, animi morbus, corporis partes, terræ mõlus.—An objective genitive usually follows the word on which it depends; as, ūnā significātione literarum, by means of a single notice by letters.—When several genitives are dependent on one noun, the subjective genitive commonly precedes and the objective genitive may either precede or follow the governing noun.—The genitive dependent on causā or gratiā, 'on account of;' regularly precedes these ablatives; as, glōriæ causā mortem obire; ēmōlūmenti sui grātiā.

- (c.) When a noun which is governed by a preposition, is modified by other words which precede it, the preposition usually stands before the words by which the noun is modified; as, A prīmā lāce ad sextam hōram. Liv. Ad ānīmi mei ketītium. Cic. Ad bēne beātēque vivendum. Id.
- (d.) Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and an adjective or a genitive, by which the noun is modified; as, Nullā in re. Cic. Justis de causis. Id. Suos inter æquāles. Id. Hanc ob causam. Id. Magno cum mētu. Id. Quā in urbe. Id. Eā in re. Id. Ætātis suæ cum primis. Nep.—So, also, a conjunction may follow the preposition; as, Post vēro Sullæ victōriam.
- (e.) Per, in adjurations, is often separated from its case by other words; as, Per ĕyo te deos ôro. Ter.—In the poets, other prepositions are sometimes separated in the same manner; as, Vulnĕra, quæ circum plurima mūros accēpit patrios. Virg.
- (f.) Tenus and versus, and sometimes other prepositions, (cf. § 241, R. 1,) follow their cases, especially when joined with qui or hic. This occurs most frequently with the prepositions ante, contra, inter, and propter; more rarely with circa, circum, pēnes, ultra and adversus; and with still less frequency with post, per, ad, and de; as, quam ante, quem contra, quos inter, quem propter, quos ad, quem ultra, hunc adversus, hunc post, quam circa.—The preceding prepositions, and more rarely others also, sometimes, especially in the poets and later prose writers, follow nouns and personal pronouns. In such case, if the noun be modified by an adjective or a genitive, the preposition semetimes stands between them, and sometimes follows both; as, Postes sub ipos. Virg. Ripam apud Euphrātis. Tac. Māria omnia circum. Virg. And more rarely other words intervene; as, His accensa super. Id. Vitus nēmo sine nascitur. Hor.

11. Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Júgurtha, ŭbi eos Africā dēcessisse rătus est, neque propter loci natūram Cirtam armis expugnāre possit, mænia circumdat. Sall. Servīre māgis quam impērāre pārāti estis. Id.

- 12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all; as, Vir grävis et săpiens. Cic. Clārus et hōnōrātus vir. Id. In scriptōrībus lēgendis et imitandis, or In lēgendis imitandisque scriptōrībus; but not In lēgendis scriptōrībus et imitandis. Quum respondēre nēque vellet nēque posset. Hābentur et dīcuntur týranni. Amīcitiam nec ūsu nec rătiōne hābent cognitam.
- 13. Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible; as,

Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te mīsi, cognosces. Sall. Līteras ad te mīsi, per quas grātias tibi ēgi. Cic.

14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; as, Suos quisque dēbet tuēri. Cic. Sătis săperque est sibi suărum cuīque rērum cūra. Id. Sēvērītas ānīmadversionis infimo cuīque grātissima. Id. Mazīme dēvet, quod est cūjusque maxīme suum. Id. Quisque very rarely begins a proposition.

15. (a.) An adverb is usually placed immediately before the word which it qualifies; but if the same word is modified by the oblique case of a noun, the latter commonly follows the adverb; as, Måle parta måle diläbantur. Cic. Nihil tam aspērum nēque tam difficile esse, quod non cūpīdissīme factūri essent. Sall.—Impērium fācile iis arūbus rētīnētur, quībus intito partum est. Id. Sed maxīme ādolescentium fāmiliāritātes appētēbat. Id. Non tam in bellis et in pracliis, quam in prōmissis et fīde fīrniorem. Cic.—(b.) When non belongs to a single word of the proposition, it always stands immediately before it; as, non te rēprēhendo, sed fortūnam. But if it belongs to the proposition generally, it stands before the verb, and particularly before the finite verb, if an infinitive depends on it; as, Cur tantôpēre te angas, intelligēre sāne non possum. Instead of non dīco, nēgo is generally used; as, nēgūvit eum ādesse.—The negatives non, nēgue, nēmo, nullus, when joined to general negative pronouns or adverbs, such as quisquam, ullus, unquam, always precede them though not always immediately; as, nēmīni quidquam nēgūvit; non mēmīni me umquam te vīdisse. § 207, R. 31.

Note 1. In some phrases, custom has established a certain order, which must be observed and imitated; as, Civis Rōmānus, pópālus Rōmānus, jus cīvīle, æ dilīnum, terrā mārīque, Pontifex maxīnus, mūjister ēquitum, tribūnus militum, tribūnu mīlitum consūlāri pôtestāte, Jūpīter optīmus maxīmus, via Appia; ne quid respāblīca dētrimenti cāpiat. Cic. The ablatīves opīnione, spe, justo, solito, (see § 256, R. 9), generally precede the comparative.

- NOTE 2. Exceptions to the foregoing principles are very numerous. These may arise (a) from emphasis; (b) from poetic license; and (c) from regard to the harmony of the sentence. The following general rule sometimes modifies nearly all the preceding.
- 16. The emphatic word is placed before the word or words connected with it which are not emphatic.
- Note 3. The last place is often an emphatic one, except for the verb. When the verb is neither first nor last in a proposition the word before it is emphatic. An adjective, when emphatic, commonly precedes its substantive; when not emphatic, it commonly follows it. But with the demonstrative pronouns the rule is reversed.
- Note 4. The principal poetical variation in the arrangement of words consists in the separation of the adjective from its noun, and in putting together words from different parts of a proposition.
- 17. A sentence should not close like a hexameter verse, with a dactyl and spondee; as, Esse vidētur; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.
- 18. Hiātus should be avoided; that is, a word beginning with a vowel should not follow a word ending with a vowel.
- 19. A concurrence of long words or long measures,—of short words or short measures,—of words beginning alike or ending alike,—should be avoided.

II. OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

- § **280.** A compound sentence, whose clauses are united as protasis and apodosis, or in which the leading clause is divided by the insertion of one or more subordinate clauses, is called a *period*.
- 1. (a.) In the former kind of period the protasis must precede the apodosis; as, Quum Pausānias sēmiāntimis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim ānimam eflāvit, When Pausanias had been carried out of the temple but just alive, he immediately expired. In a period of the latter kind the verb of the principal proposition is placed at the end, and the subordinate clauses between the parts of the leading clause; as, Pausānias, quum sēmiānimis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim ānimam eflāvit, Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Nep.
- (b.) A sentence, such as Scīpio exercitum in Africam trājēcit, ut Hannibālem ex Itāliā dēdūcēret, is not periodic in its structure, but it becomes so when we

- say, Scipio, ut Hannībālem ex Itāliā dēdācēret, exercitum in Africam trājēcit. Periods in which the subordinate clause precedes with two conjunctions; as, quam tigitur Rōmam vēnisset, stātim impērātōrem āditi, are made still more strictly periodic by placing first the conjunction which belongs to the whole, and then inserting the subordinate proposition; as, Itāque, quum Rōmam vēnisset, stātim impērātōrem āditit.
- 2. (a.) If the verbs of the leading and dependent clauses have the same subject, or the same noun depending on them, they are commonly formed into a period; as, Antīgŏnus, quum adversus Sēleucum Lȳsimāchumque dīmicāret, in prælio occīsus est. Nep. Quem, ut barbāri incendium eff ūgisse ēminus vīdērunt, tēlis missis interfēcērunt. Id.
- (b.) So, also, when the noun which depends on the verb of the leading clause is the subject of the dependent clause; as, L. Manlio, quum dictator fuisset, M. Pompōnius, trībūnus plēbis, diem dixit. Cic.
- 3. When obscurity would arise from separating the leading subject and verb by dependent words or clauses, they are often placed together at the beginning or end of the sentence; as, Late (sunt) deinde leges, non sölum quæ regni susptcione considem obsolverent, sed quæ adeo in contrarium verterent, ut pópilarem ētium facèrent. Liv. The position of the leading verb is also often otherwise varied, from regard to emphasis, to avoid monotony, or to prevent its meeting with the verb of the last dependent clause; but clauses, when so arranged, do not constitute a period.
- 4. When one clause is interrupted by the introduction of another, the latter should be finished before the first is resumed.
- 5. Clauses expressing a cause, a condition, a time, or a comparison, usually precede the clauses to which they relate.
 - 6. A short clause usually stands before, rather than after, a long one.

III. OF THE CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

- (1.) In connecting propositions, relatives, whether pronouns, pronominal adjectives, or adverbs, are often employed in order to avoid the too frequent recurrence of et, autem, and certain other conjunctions. Every relative may be used for this purpose instead of its corresponding demonstrative with et; as, qui for et is, quālis for et tālis, quo for et eo, etc. They are used also before those conjunctions which are joined with et or autem at the beginning of a proposition; as, si, nisi, ut, quum, etc. (see § 206, (14.); as, quod quum audivissem, quod si fécissem, quod quamvis non ignõrassem, for et quum hoc, et si hoc, et quamwis hoc; or quum autem hoc, etc.; and, often, also, where in English no conjunction is used, and even before other relatives; as, quod qui fácit, eum égo impium jūdico, i. e. et qui hoc fácit, or, qui autem hoc fácit. In the ablative with comparatives the relative is often used as a connective; as, Cáto, quo nêmo tum êrat pivalentior, i. e. Cato, who was more prudent than all others.
- (2.) In propositions consisting of two members, the relative pronoun is joined grammatically either to the apodosis or to the protasis; with the former in, Qui, quum ex eo quærërētur, cur tam diu vellet esse in vītā, Nihil hābeo, inquit, quod accūsem senectūtem. Cic. de Sen. 6. But is more frequent with the protasis or secondary clause; as, A quo quum quærërētur, quid maxīme expēdīret, respondīt. Cic. Off. 2, 25. When it is thus joined with the protasis, the nominative of the demonstrative is supplied with the apodosis from another case of the relative in the protasis, as, in the preceding passage, from the ablative. But for the sake of emphasis the demonstrative may be expressed, and frequently, also, for the sake of clearness; as, Qui mos quum a postēriōrībusnon esset rētentus, Arcēsīlas eum rēvōcāvīt. Cic. de Fin. 2, 1. The accusative is sometimes to be supplied; as, Qui (Hērāclītus) quōnam intellīgi noluit, ōmitāmus. Cic. N. D. 3, 14. When the demonstrative precedes, and is followed by a proposition consisting of two members, the relative is attached to the prota-

- sis, which is placed first, and not to the leading clause or apodosis; as, Ea sudsi Pompeio, quibus ille si pāruisset, Cæsar tantas õpes, quantas nunc hābet, non hābēret. Cic. Fram. 6, 6. Nõli adversus eos me velle dūcēre, cum quibus ne contra te arma ferrem, Itāliam rēligui. Nep. Att. 4.
- (3.) Where in English we use 'however' with the relative; as, He promised me many things, which, however, he did not perform, the Latins made use of the demonstrative with sed or vērum, or the relative alone implying the adversative conjunction; as, multa mihi prōmīsit, sed ea non præstitit, or, quæ non præstitit, but not quæ autem or quæ vēro. Qui autem and qui vēro are used however in protases, where the relative retains its relative meaning, and there is a corresponding demonstrative in the apodosis; as, Qui autem omnia bōna as e ipsis pētunt, iis nihil mūlum vidēri pōtest, quod nātūræ nēcessitas affērat. Cic. de Sen. 2.
- (4.) In double relative clauses, especially where the cases are different, Cicero frequently for the second relative clause substitutes the demonstratives, so, Sed ipsius in mente insidebat spēcies pulchritūdinis eximia quædam, quam intuens, in eāque dēfixus, ad, etc. for et in quā. Cic. Orat. 2. And sometimes even when the cases are the same; as, Quem Phituntem vēnisse fērunt, eumque cum Leonte dissēruisse quædam. Cic. Tusc. 5, 3; where et alone would have been sufficient.
- (5.) From this tendency to connect sentences by relatives arose the use of quod before certain conjunctions merely as a copulative. See § 206, (14.)
- (6.) Neque or nec is much used by Latin writers instead of et and a negation, and may be so used in all cases except when the negative belongs to one particular word; see § 278, R. 9. Neque or nec is added to enim, vero, and tomen, where we cannot use 'and.' To these negative expressions a second negative is often joined, in which case neque enim non is equivalent to num; non vero non, to atque etiam, a stronger et; nec tamen non, to attamen.

ANALYSIS.

- § 281. I. 1. The analysis of a complex or a compound sentence consists in dividing it into its several component propositions, and pointing out their relation to each other.
- 2. In resolving a sentence into its component clauses, the participial constructions equivalent to clauses should be mentioned, and ellipses be supplied. See § 203, 4; § 274, 3; and § 257.
- 3. In a continued discourse the connection and relation of the successive sentences also should be specified.

Rules for the Analysis of Complex and Compound Sentences.

- (1.) State whether the sentence is complex or compound. § 201, 11, 12.
- (2.) If complex, (1) specify the principal and subordinate clauses. (2) Specify the class to which the subordinate proposition belongs, (§ 201, 7), and (3), its connective, and the class to which such connective belongs, (§ 201, 8 and 9.)
- (3.) If compound, specify the principal propositions, with their subordinates, if any they have, as in the case of complex sentences.
- II. The analysis of a proposition or simple sentence consists in distinguishing the subject from the predicate, and, in case either of them be compound, in pointing out the simple subjects or predicates of which it is composed, and, if complex, in specifying the several modifiers, whether of the essential or subordinate parts.

Rules for the Analysis of a Simple Sentence.

- 1. Divide it into two parts—the subject and the predicate, § 201, 1—3. If these are simple, the analysis is complete, but if either is compound:—
- 2. Specify the simple subjects or predicates of which the compound consists.—If either is complex:—
- 3. Point out the grammatical subject, and the words, phrases, etc. directly modifying it.
- 4. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical subject, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical subject is specified.
- 5. Point out the grammatical predicate, and the words, phrases, etc., directly modifying it.
- 6. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical predicate, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical predicate is specified.

PARSING.

III. Parsing consists in resolving a proposition into the parts of speech of which it is composed, tracing the derivation of each word, and giving the rules of formation and construction applicable to it.

Rules for Parsing.

- 1. Name the part of speech to which each word belongs, including the sub-division in which it is found.
 - 2. If it is an inflected word:
 - (1.) Name its root or crude form, and decline, compare, or conjugate it.
- (2.) If it is a noun or pronoun, tell its gender, number and case:—if in the nominative or in the accusative with the infinitive, tell its verb:—if in an oblique case depending on some other word, tell the word on which its case depends.
- (3.) If it is an adjective, adjective-pronoun, or participle, tell the word which it modifies.
- (4.) If it is a finite verb or an infinitive with the accusative, tell its voice, mood, tense, number, person, and subject.
 - 3. If it is a conjunction, tell its class and what it connects.
 - 4. If it is a preposition, tell the words whose relation is expressed by it.
 - 5. If it is an adverb, tell its class and what it qualifies.
- 6. Prove the correctness of each step of the process by quoting the definition or rule of formation or construction on which it depends.

NOTE. The words constituting a proposition are most conveniently parsed in that order in which they are arranged in analysis.

Examples of Analysis and Parsing.

1. Equus currit, The horse runs.

Analysis. This is a simple sentence: its subject is $\it equus$, its predicate is $\it currit$, both of which are simple. See § 201, 1-3; § 202, 2; and § 203, 2.

Parsing. Equus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d decl., § 38; masc. gender, § 28, 1; third person, § 35, 2; its root is $\dot{e}qu$ -, § 40, 10; decline it, § 46; it is in the nominative case, singular number, § 35, 1, (b.); the subject of currit, § 209, (a.)—Currit is a neuter verb, § 141, II.; of the 3d conjugation, § 149, 2, from curro; its principal parts are curro, cucurri, cursum, currère, § 151, 4; it is from the first root curr-; give the formations of that root, § 151, 1; it is in the active voice, § 142, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; present tense, § 145, I.; third person, § 147; singular number, § 146; agreeing with its subject-nominative $\dot{e}quus$, § 209, (b.)

Note. The questions to be asked in parsing equus are such as these, Why is equus a noun? Why a common noun? Why of the second declension? Why musculine? etc.—In parsing currit, the questions are, Why is currit a verb? Why a neuter verb? Why of the third conjugation? Which are the principal parts of a verb? Of what does the first root of a verb consist? What parts of a verb are derived from the first root? etc. The answer in each case may be found by consulting the etymological rules and definitions.

2. Sævius ventis ägitātur ingens pīnus, The great pine is more violently shaken by the winds. Hor.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence:—its subject is ingens pīnus, its predicate sevius ventis ăgitūtur; both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is pinus, the pine; this is modified by ingens, great,

§ 201, 2, § 202, 2, and § 202, 6, (3.)

The grammatical predicate is *ägitātur*, is shaken; this is modified by two independent modifiers, *sævius*, more violently, and *ventis*, by the winds, § 203, II. 3, Rem., § 203, II. 1, (2), and (3.)

Parsing. Pinus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d and 4th declensions, § 38 and § 99; feminine gender, § 29, 2; 3d person, § 35, 2; from the root pin, § 40, 10; (decline it both in the 2d and 4th declensions);—it is found in the singular number, § 35, 1, and the nominative case, the subject of agua-tur, § 209, (a.)

Ingens is a qualifying adjective of quantity, § 104, 4, and § 205, N. 1; of the 3d decl., § 105, 1, and § 38; of one termination, § 108, and § 111: from the root ingent-, § 40, 10; (decline it like presens, § 111, but with only in the ablative, § 113, Exc. 3,);—it is found in the singular number, feminine gender, § 26, K. 4;

and nominative case, agreeing with its noun pinus, § 205.

Agitātur is an active frequentative verb, § 141, I., and § 187, II. 1; of the 1st conjugation, § 149, 2; from the first root of its primitive ăgo, § 187, II. 1.(b.); (nume its principal parts in both voices, see § 151, 4; and give the conjugation of the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, see § 156,);—it is found in the singular number, § 146; third person, § 147; agreeing with its subject-nominative pīnus, § 209, (b.)

Sevius is a derivative adverb of manner, § 190, 2-4; in the comparative degree, from the positive seve or sæviter, which is derived from the adjective sevus, § 194, 1 and 2, and § 192, II. 1, and Exc. 1 and 2; modifying the verb

ăgitătur, by expressing its degree, § 277.

Ventis is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 46; from the root vent-, § 40, 10; (decline it);—it is found in the plural number, § 35, 1; ablative case, modifying ăgitătur by denoting its means or instrument, § 247.

3. Mithridātes, duārum et vīginti gentium rex, tötidem linguis jūra dixit, Mithridates, king of twenty-two nations, pronounced judicial decisions in as many languages. Plin.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence; its subject is Mithridates, duarum et viginti gentium rex, its predicate is tovidem linguis jūra dixit, both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is Mithridates; this is modified directly by rex, 6 202, I. (1.)

Rex is limited by gentium, § 202, I. 1, (2.)

Gentium is limited by the compound addition duarum and viginti connected

coordinately by et, § 202, III. 3.

The grammatical predicate is dixit; this is limited by jura and linguis, the former a simple, the latter a complex addition, as it is modified by tottdem, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and II. 1.

Parsing. Milhridātes is a proper noun, § 26, 2; of the third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root Milhridāt-, § 40, 10; genitive Milhridātis, § 73, 1; (decline it in the singular number only, § 95, (a.);—it is found in the nominative case, the subject of dixit, § 209, (a.)

Rex is a common noun—third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root rēg-, § 40, 10; genitive rēgis, § 78, 2; (decline it);—it is found in the singular number—the nominative case, in apposition to Milhridātes, § 204.

Gentium is a common noun from gens—third declension—feminine gender, § 62; from the root gent-, § 56, I, R. 1; genitive gentis, § 77, 2 and (2.); (decline it);—it is found in the plural number—genitive case, § 63, II. 3; limiting gens subjectively, § 211 and R. 2.

rex subjectively, § 211 and R. 2.

Duārum is a numeral adjective, § 104, 5; of the cardinal kind, § 117; from

duo, due, duo; from the root du-; (decline it, § 118, 1,);—it is found in the plural number, § 118, 2; feminine gender, genitive case, § 26, R. 4; agreeing with its noun gentium, § 205.

Et is a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1, connecting duārum and vīginti, § 278. Viginti is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, indeclinable, \S 118, 1;

limiting gentium, § 205.

Divit is an active verb, § 141, I.; of the third conjugation, § 149, 2; from dico, (give the principal parts in the active voice, and its first, second, and third roots, § 150, 4, and § 171, 1;) it is formed from the second root dix-, (give the formations of the second root);—it is found in the active voice, § 141, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; perfect indefinite tense, § 145, IV. and Rem.; sin-

gular number, third person, agreeing with Mithridātes, § 209, (b.)

Jūra is a common noun, of the third declension, from jus, root jūr-, § 56, I.
R. 1 genitive jūris, § 76, Exc. 3; neuter gender, § 66; (decline it);—it is found

in the plural number, accusative case, § 40, 8; the object of dizit, § 229.

Linguis is a common noun, of the first declension, feminine gender, from lingua, root lingua, (decline it);—found in the plural number, ablative case, after dixit. § 247.

Totidem is a demonstrative pronominal adjective, § 139, 5, (2.) and (3.); indeclinable, § 115, 4; it is in the ablative plural, feminine gender, limiting lin-

guis, § 205.

4. Pausănias, quum sēmiănimis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim ănimam efflāvit. Nep. Paus. 4.

This is a complex sentence, § 201, 11; consisting of two mem-Analysis.

bers, which are so arranged as to constitute a period, § 280, 1.

The principal proposition is, Pausănias confestim ănimum efflărit, § 201, 5.
The subordinate proposition is, quum (is) semianimis de templo elatus esset,

§ 201, 6.

The leading proposition has a simple subject, Pausănias, § 202, 2, and a complex predicate, confestim animam efflavit, § 203, 3; in which efflavit is the complex predicate § 203, 2; which is modified by confestim and animum, grammatical predicate, § 203, 2; which is modified by confestim and animum, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and (3.), and H. R. 2., and also by the adverbial clause quum sēmiānīmis, etc. § 201, 6 and 7, and § 203, I. 3.

The subordinate proposition, which is connected to the leading clause by the subordinate conjunction quum, § 201, 9, has a simple subject, viz. is understood, and a complex predicate, semidnimis, de templo élâtus esset, § 203, 3.—
The grammatical predicate is élêtus esset, § 203, 2; which is modified by sémidnimis, § 203, I. 1, (1.), and de templo, § 203, I. 2, and II. Rem. 2.

Parsing. Pausanias, a Greek proper noun, § 26, 2;—1st decl., §§ 41 and 44; masc. gender, § 28, 1; root Pausani-; found in sing. num., nom. case, the subject of efflavit, § 209, (a.)

Confestim, an adv. of time § 190, 3; limiting efflavit, § 277.

Animam is a com. noun of 1st decl., fem. gender, § 41; from anima, root anim-; (decline it);—it is found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of

efflavit, § 229.

Efflavit, an act. verb, 1st conj., from efflo, compounded of ex and flo, § 196, 6; (give the principal parts in the act. voice and the three roots);—it is formed from the second root; (give the formations of that root); in the active voice, ind. mood, perfect indefinite tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with Pausamias, § 209, (b.)

Quum is a temporal conjunction, § 198, 10; connecting the dependent to the

principal clause, § 278.

Sēmianimis is a predicate adj., of the 3d decl., of two terminations, § 109; (decline it);—it is in the sing. num., masc. gend., nom. case, agreeing with is understood, § 210, R. 1, (a.)

De is a preposition, expressing the relation between elatus esset and templo,

§ 195.

Templo is a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gend., from templum, root templ-; (decline it);—in the sing. nun., abl. case, after de, § 241.

Elātus esset is an irregular active verb, of the third conjugation, § 179; from effero, compounded of ex and fero, § 196, 6; (see fero and compounds, § 172); (give the principal parts in both voices, and the 1st and 3d roots);-it is formed from the third root, elat-, (give the formations of that root in the passive voice); in the subjunctive mood, pluperfect tense, § 145, V.; sing. num., third person, agreeing with is understood referring to Pausanias, § 209, (b.)

5. Romāna pūbes, sēdāto tandem pavore, postquam ex tam turbido die serena et tranquilla lux rediit, übi văcuam sedem regiam vidit, etsi sătis crēdēbat patribus, qui proximi stětěrant, sublīmem raptum procellā; tămen, vēlut orbītātis mētu icta, mæstum aliquamdiu silentium obtinuit. Liv. 1, 16.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, whose clauses constitute a period, § 280. It is composed of the following members or clauses:-

1. Romāna pūbes [tămen] mæstum ăliquamdiu silentium obtinuit. This is the leading clause. The following are dependent clauses.

2. vělut orbitātis mětu icta,

3. sēdāto tandem păvore, 4. postquam ex tam turbido die serena et tranquilla lux rediit.

5. ubi vacuam sēdem rēgiam vidit,

- 6. etsi sătis crēdebat patribus, 7. qui proximi stětěrant,
- 8. sublimem raptum procellā.

Note 1. In the preceding clauses the predicates are printed in Italies.

Note 2. The connective of the 1st clause, is the adversative tamen, which is inserted on account of etsi intervening between the principal subject and predicate. The connective of the 2d clause is velut, of the 4th postquam, of the 5th ubi, of the 6th etsi, followed by a clause constituting the protasis, and of the 7th qui. The 3d and 8th clauses have no connectives.

(1.) The grammatical subject of the leading clause is pubes, which is limited by Rōmāna.—The grammatical predicate is obtinuit, which is limited by aliquandiu and silentium, and also either directly or indirectly by all the dependent clauses. Silentium is itself modified by mæstum.

The second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth clauses are used adverbially to denote the time and other circumstances modifying the principal predicate

silentium obtinuit, § 201, 7.

(2.) The second is a participial clause, equivalent to vělut (ea scil. pūbes)

orbitātis mētu icta esset, § 274, 3, (a.)

(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quum tandem.

(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quum tandem paror sēdātus esset, § 257, R. 1; and hence pāvõre represents the subject, and sēdāto tandem the predicate—the former being simple, the latter complex.

(4.) The grammatical subject of the 4th clause, which is connected to the leading clause by postquam, § 201, 9, is lux, which is modified by sērēna and tranquilla.—The grammatical predicate is rēdit, which is modified by postquam and ex tam turbīdo die, § 203, I. 1, (3.), and II. 1.

(5.) The grammatical subject of the fifth clause is ea understood.—The grammatical predicate is vādit, which is modified by ūbi and vācuam sēdem rēgiam, § 203, I. 1, (3.) and II. 1.

(6.) The grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is ea. Its grammatical predicate is crābīdut, which is modified by sătis and natribus § 203, I. (2.)

cal predicate is crēdēbat, which is modified by sătis and patribus, § 203, I. (2.)

and (3.), and by the 8th clause, II. 3.

(7.) The grammatical subject of the seventh clause is qui. Its grammatical predicate is stětěrant, which is modified by proximi, § 203, I. (1.) It is an adjective clause, modifying patribus, § 201, 7 and 9.

(8.) The grammatical subject of the eighth clause, which has no connective,

§ 201, Rem., is eum, i. e. Romulum, understood. Its grammatical predicate is raptum (esse), which is modified by sublimem and procella.

Parsing. Romana is a patrial adjective, § 104, 10, derived from Roma, § 128, 6, (a.) and (e.); of the 1st and 2d declensions, § 105, 2; fem. gender,

sing. number, nom. case, agreeing with $p\bar{u}bes$, § 205. $P\bar{u}bes$, a collective noun, § 26, 4; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root $p\bar{u}b-$, § 56, I. R. 6; gentitive $p\bar{u}bis$, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the nom. sing., the subject of *obtinuit*, § 209, (a.)

Timen, an adversative conjunction, § 198, 9, relating to etsi in the 6th clause. Mestum, a qualifying adj., § 205, N. 1; of the 1st and 2d declensions, neut. gender, sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with silentium.

Aliquamdiu, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; compounded of dliquis and diu,

§ 193, 6; and limiting obtinuit, § 277.

Silentium, a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gender, § 46; sing. number, acc. case,

the object of obtinuit, § 229.

Obtinuit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., § 149, 2; from obtineo, compounded of ob and toneo, see § 168; (give the principal parts in the act. voice, and the formations of the 2d root, § 157 at the end);—found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with pubes, § 209, (b.)

Vilut for vilut si, an adverte, compounded of vel and ut, §193, 10; modifying icta, and obtinuisset understood, (as they would have done if, etc.)

Orbitātis, an abstract noun, § 26, 5; from the primitive orbus, § 101, 1 and 2; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root orbitāt-, § 56, I., and R. 1; (decline it);—found in the sing. num., subjective gen. case, limiting mētu, § 211.

Mētu, an abstract noun, 4th decl., masc. gen., § 87; sing. num., abl. case,

Icta, a perf. part. pass., from the active verb īco, of the 3d conj. (give the principal parts in both voices, and decline the participle); -found in the fem.

gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with pūbes, § 205.
Sēdāto, a perfect pass. part. from the active verb sēdo, of the 1st conj., § 149, 2; (give the principal parts in both voices, § 151, 4; and decline it, § 105, R. 2.);—found in the masc. gender, sing. num., abl. case, agreeing with pavore, § 205.

Tandem, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; modifying sēdāto, § 277.

Pavore, an abstract noun, § 26, 5, and § 102, 1; (from paveo), 3d decl., masc. gen., § 58; root pavor, § 56, II., and § 70, (decline it);—found in the singnumber, abl. case, absolute with sēdāto, § 257.

Postquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, § 193, 10; mod-

ifying rediit, and connecting the 1st and 4th clauses, § 201, 9.

Ex, a preposition, § 195, R. 2. Tum, an adverb of degree, § 191, R. 2; modifying turbido, § 277.

Turbido, an adjective, agreeing with die.

Die, a common noun, 5th decl., masc. gender, \ 90, Exc. 1.; sing. number, abl. case, after the prep. ex, § 241.

Serena, an adj., 1st and 2d decls., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing

with lux, § 205.

Et, a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1; connecting serena and tranquilla, § 278.

Tranquilla, like sĕrēna.

Lux, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root luc-, § 56, I.,

and R. 2; genitive lūcis, § 78, 2.

Rědiit, an irregular neuter verb, of the 4th conj., § 176; from rědeo, compounded of eo, § 182, and the inseparable prep. red, § 196, (b.), 3; (give its principal parts);—found in the ind. mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with lux, § 209, (b.)

Ubi, an adverb of time, and like postquam, a connective, § 201, 9; and modi-

fying vidit, § 277.

Văcuam, an adj., qualifying sēdem.

Sēdem, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root sēd-, § 56, I., R. 6; genitive sedis, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of the transitive verb vidit, § 229.

Rēgiam, a denominative adj., § 128, I., 2, (a.); from the primitive rex, agree-

ing with sedem.

Vidit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., (give its principal parts in the active voice, and the formations of the 2d root); found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with ea, i. e. pūbes, understood.

Etsi, a concessive conjunction, § 198, 4; corresponding to the correlative ad-

versative conj. tămen, § 198, 4, R. and 9. Sătis, an adverb of degree, § 191, III., and R. 2; modifying crēdēbat, § 277.

Crédébat, an act. verb, § 141, I.; 3d conj., (give the principal parts in the active voice and the formations of the 1st root);—found in the act. voice, ind. mood, imperfect tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with ea, scil. pubes, understood.

Patribus, a common noun, § 26, 3; 3d decl., from the root patr-, § 56, II., R. 3; gen. patris, § 71; masc. gender, § 28, 1; plur. num., dat. case, depending on credebat, § 223, R. 2.

Qui, the subject of the 7th clause, is a relative pronoun, § 136; mase. gender, plur. num., agreeing with its antecedent patribus, § 206, R. 19, (a.); and is nominative to steterant, § 209, (a.)

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree, § 126, 1, (compare it); of the 1st and 2d decls., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui. § 205, § 210,

R. 1, (a.) and R. 3, (2.)

Stělěrant, a neuter verb, 1st conj., irregular in its 2d root, § 165; (give its principal parts, and the formations of the 2d root); -found in the act. voice, ind. mood, plup. tense, § 145, V.; 3d person plural, agreeing with its subject qui, § 209, (b.)

Sublimem, an adj., of the 3d decl., and two terminations, § 109; masc. gen.,

sugment, an adj., of the od dect., and two terminations, § 109; masc. gen., sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with eum, (i. e. Rōmūlum,) understood, and modifying also raptum esse, § 205, R. 15.

Raptum (esse), an act. verb, 3d conj.; (give the principal parts in both voices and the formations of the 3d root in the passive voice)—found in the pass, voice, inf. mood, perf. tense; but, following the imperfect, it has the meaning of a pluperfect, § 268, 2, and § 145, V.; depending on crédicate, § 272.

Privellā a com. num 1st deci form gen sing num and case & 20. Procella, a com. noun, 1st decl., fem. gen., sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

PROSODY.

§ 282. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, and the laws of versification.

QUANTITY.

- 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it. Cf. § 13.
 - 2. A syllable is either short, long, or common.
- (a.) The time occupied in pronouncing a short syllable is called a mora or time.
- (b.) A long syllable requires two moræ or double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, ămārě.
- (c.) A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of tenebra.
- 3. The quantity of a syllable is either natural or accidental;—natural, when it depends on the nature of its vowel; accidental, when it depends on its position.

Thus the e in resisto is short by nature; while in resitti it is long by its position, since it is followed by two consonants: § 283, IV. On the contrary, the e in $ded\bar{u}co$ is naturally long, but in deerro it is made short by being placed before a vowel: § 283, I.

4. The quantity of syllables is determined either by certain established rules, or by the authority of the poets.

Thus it is poetic usage alone that determines the quantity of the first syllables of the following words, viz. māter, frāter, prāvus, dīco, dūco; pāter, āvus, cādo, māneo, grāvis, etc.; and hence the quantity of such syllables can be ascertained by practice only or by consulting the gradus or lexicon.

5. The rules of quantity are either general or special. The former apply alike to all the syllables of a word, the latter to particular syllables.

GENERAL RULES.

§ 283. I. (a.) A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short; as, e in měus, i in patriæ. Thus,

Conscia mens recti fāmæ mendācia rīdet. Ovid. F. 4, 311. Ipse ētiam eximiæ laudis succensus amore. Virg. A. 7, 496.

(b.) So also when h comes between the vowels, since h is accounted only a breathing; as, nihil: (see § 2, 6.) Thus,

De nihilo nihil, in nihilum nil posse reverti. Pers. 4, 84.

Exc. 1. (a.) $F\bar{\imath}o$ has the i long, except in $f\check{\imath}t$ and when followed by er; as $f\bar{\imath}unt$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{e}bam$. Thus,

Omnia jam fāant, fīēri quæ posse něgābam. Ovid. Tr. 1, 8, 7.

- (b.) It is sometimes found long even before er; as, $fi\'{e}ret$. Ter.; $fi\'{e}ri$. Plaut: and, on the contrary, Prudentius has $fi\'{o}$ with i short.
- Exc. 2. (a.) E is long in the termination of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when preceded and followed by i; as, $f \check{a} c i \bar{c} i$. Thus,

Non rădii solis, neque lucida tela diei. Lucr. 1, 148.

(b.) In spei, rei, and fidei, e is short.

NOTE. In Lucretius, the e of rei is, in a few cases, long, and that of fider is lengthened once in Lucretius and once in a line of Ennius.

- Exc. 3. (a.) A is long in the penult of old genitives in a i of the first declension; as, aula, picta. Cf. § 43, 1.
- (b.) A and e are also long in proper names in arus, erus, or era; as, Carus, Pomperus, Aquilera; and in the adjectives Grarus and Verus. Thus,

Æthěrium sensum, atque aurāi simplīcis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747. Accīpe, Pompēi, déductum carmen ab illo. Ovid. Pont. 4, 1, 1. Necnon cum Vēnětis Aquilēia perfürit armis. Sil. 8, 606.

Exc. 4. (a.) I is common in genitives in ius; as, $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}us$, $ill\bar{\imath}us$. Thus,

Illīus et nītīdo stillent unguenta căpillo. Tibull, 1, 7, 51. Illīus pūro dēstillent tempóra nardo. Id. 2, 2, 7.

- (b.) But i in the genitive of alter is commonly short; and in that of alius it is always long.
- Exc. 5. The first vowel of $\bar{e}heu$ is long; that of $D\tilde{t}\bar{a}na$, $\tilde{t}o$, and $\tilde{o}he$, is common.
- Exc. 6. Greek words retain their original quantities, and hence, in many *Greek* words, a vowel is long, though immediately followed by another vowel; as,

āēr, Achāīa, Achēlōūs, dīa, ēos, Lāertes, and Greek words having in the original a long e or o (η or ω.) See also § 293, 3.

(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei (u) before a vowel, and in Latin with a single e or i, have the e or i long; as, Ænēas, Alexandria, Cassiopēa, Clīo, Dārīus, ēlēgīa, Gálātēa, Mēdēa, Mausōlēum, Pēnēlōpēa, Thālīa, Atrīdes. Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e

Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e long; as, Cýthérēus, Pēlopēus; and the e remains long when et is restored; as, Pēlopēu.

Exc. Acădēmia, chŏrea, Mălea, plătea, and some patronymics and patrials in ess; as, Néres, have the penult common.

- (2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the e; as, Orphéos, Orphéa;—but the e is sometimes lengthened by the Ionic dialect; as, Cēphēos, Iliónēa.
- (3.) Greek words in ais, ois, aius, eius, oius, aon, and ion, generally lengthen the first vowel; as, Nāis, Minōis, Grāvus, Nērētus, Minōtus, Machāon, Izon. But Thēbāis, Simōis, Phaon, Deucalion, Pygmalion, and many others, shorten the former vowel.
- Note 1. Greek words in aon and ion, with o short in the genitive, have the penult long; but with o long in the genitive, they have it short; as, Amythāon, -āonis; Deucālion, -ōnis.

NOTE 2. In Greek proper names in eus (gen. eos), as Orpheus, the eu in the nominative is always a diphthong in the original, and, with very few exceptions, in the Latin poets.

II. A diphthong is long; as, $\overline{au}rum$, $f\overline{e}nus$, $\overline{Eub}\overline{e}a$, $Pomp\overline{e}\overline{u}s$, $Orph\overline{e}\overline{u}$. Thus,

Infernīque lăcus, $\overline{Accaque}$ insŭla Circæ. Virg. A. 3, 386. Thēsāuros ignōtum argenti pondus et \overline{auri} . Id. A. 1, 359. Harpyiæque cŏlunt āliæ, Phīnēïa postquam. Id. A. 3, 212.

Exc. 1. Præ, in composition, is short before a vowel; as, præustus, præustus. Thus,

Nec tota tamen ille prior praeunte carina. Virg. A. 5, 186.

In Statius, and Sidonius Apollinaris, it is found long.

Exc. 2. A diphthong at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, is sometimes made short; as,

Insŭlæ Ičnio in magno, quas dīra Celæno. Virg. A. 3, 211.

Exc. 3. The diphthongs consisting of u followed by a vowel are either long or short; the two vowels thus combined being subject to the same rules of quantity, as their final vowel would be if standing alone; as, $qu\bar{a}$, $qu\bar{a}$, $qu\bar{a}$, $qu\bar{a}$, $qu\bar{u}$,

III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as, älius for alitus; cōgo for còògo; nīl for nihil; jūnior for jūvėnior. Thus, Tītyre cōge pēcus, tu post cārecta lūtēbas. Virg. E. 3, 20.

IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, is long by position; as, $\tilde{a}rma$, $b\bar{e}llum$, $\tilde{a}xis$, $g\tilde{a}za$, $m\tilde{a}jor$. Thus,

Pāscēre voortet oves dēdūctum dīcēre cārmen. Virg. E. 6, 5. Nēc mirtūs vīncet cōrylos; nēc laurea Pheebi. Id. E. 7, 64. At nēbis, Pax alma, vēni, spicamque tēnēto. Tībull. 1, 10, 67. Rāra jūvant: prīmis sic mājor grātia pōmis. Mart. 4, 29, 3.

NOTE 1. A vowel (other than i) before j is in reality lengthened by forming a diphthong with it, since i and j are in fact but one letter. Thus major is equivalent to mai'-or, which would be pronounced ma'-yor. See § 9, 1.

Exc. 1. The compounds of $j\ddot{u}gum$ have i short before j; as, $b\breve{i}j\ddot{u}-gus$, $qu\ddot{u}dr\breve{i}j\ddot{u}gus$. Thus,

Interea bijugis infert se Lucagus albis. Virg. A. 10, 575.

REMARK. The vowel is long by position, when either one or both of the consonants is in the same word with it; but when both stand at the beginning of the following word, the vowel is either long or short; as,

Tolle mŏras; sempēr nŏcuīt differre părātis. Lucan. 1, 231. Ferte cīti ferrūm; date tēlā; scandīte mūros. Virg. A. 9, 37. Ne tămen ignōrēt, quæ sīt sententia scripto. Ovid.

Note 2. A short vowel at the end of a word, before an initial double consonant or j in the following word, is not lengthened.

NOTE 3. In the comic poets a vowel frequently remains short though followed by two consonants, especially if only one of them is in the same word.

Exc. 2. A vowel naturally short, before a mute followed by a liquid, is common; as, ägris, phărētra, vòlūcris, pŏplĭtes, cŏchlea. Thus,

Et prīmo sīmīlis völūcri, mox vēra völūcris. Ovid. M. 13. 607. Nātum ante ōra pātris, pātrem qui obtruncat ad āras. Virg. A. 2, 663. Nox tēnēbras profert, Phœbus fügat inde tēnēbras. Ovid.

REM. 1. If the vowel before a mute and liquid is naturally long, it continues so; as, sălūbris, ambŭlācrum.

REM. 2. In compound words, of which the former part ends with a mute, and the latter begins with a liquid, a short vowel before the mute is made long by position; as, ābluo, ōbruo, sūblevo, quamōbrem.

REM. 3. A mute and liquid at the beginning of a word seldom lengthen the short vowel of the preceding word, except in the arsis of a foot; as,

Terrasquē tractusque măris cœlumque profundum. Virg. E. 4, 51.

REM. 4. In Latin words, only the liquids l and r following a mute render the preceding short vowel common; but, in words of Greek origin, m and n after a mute have the same effect, as in $T\check{e}cmessa$, $Pr\check{o}cne$, $C\check{y}cnus$.

SPECIAL RULES.

FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primitives; as,

by conjugation, amo, amot, amābat, amāvi, amātus, etc.; by declension, amor, amōris, amōri, amōribus, etc.; so, animal, animātus, from anima; gemebundus, from gemere; famīlia, from famīlus; māternus, from māter; propinguus, from prope.

NOTE 1. Lār, pār, sāl, and pēs in declension shorten the vowel of the nominative; as, sālis, pēdis, etc.

NOTE 2. The vowel of the primitive is sometimes lengthened or shortened in the derivative by the addition or removal of a consonant.

Rem. 1. Derivatives from increasing nouns of the second or third declension agree in quantity with the increment of their primitives; as,

puĕritia, from puĕri; virgineus, from virginis; sălūber, from sălūtis.

REM. 2. In verbs, the vowels of the derived tenses and of derivative words agree in quantity with the verbal root from which they are formed; as,

mŏvēbam, mŏvēlo, mŏveam, mŏvērem, mŏve, mŏvēre, mŏvens, mŏvendus, from mōv, the root of the present, with δ short;—mōvěram, mōvěrim, mōvissem, mōvěro, mōvisse, from mōv, the root of the perfect, with δ long; mōtūrus and mōtus;—mōto, mōtio, mōtor, and mōtus,—ūs, from mōt, the root of the supine, with δ also long.

REM. 3. (a.) Sölütum and rölütum from solvo and volvo have the first syllable short, as if from söluo, röluo. So, from gigno come ginui, ginitum, as if from gino; and pötui, from pötis sum (possum).

(b.) The a in da, imperative of do, is long, though short in other parts of the verb. See § 294, 2.

(c.) The o in posui and positum is short, though long in pono.

Exc. 1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short; as,

vēni, vīdi, fēci, from věnio, video, făcio; cāsum, mōtum, vīsum, from cădo, mŏveo, video.

Note 3. Such perfects are supposed to have been formed either by the contraction of reduplicated syllables, as $v\tilde{e}nio$, perf. $v\tilde{e}v\tilde{e}ni$, by syncope $v\tilde{e}\tilde{e}ni$, by crasis $v\tilde{e}ni$, or by the omission of a consonant, as video, perf. vidsi, by syncope vidi, the vowel retaining the quantity which it had by position.

NOTE 4. The long vowel of dissyllabic supines probably arose in like manner from syncope and contraction; as, video, vidsum, by syncope visum; moveo,

movitum, by syncope moitum, by contraction motum.

- (1.) (a.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short:—bibi, dědi, fidi, (from findo), scidi, stěti, stiti, tůli. So also percůli, from percello.
 - (b.) The first syllable is also short before a vowel (§ 283, I.); as, rui.
- (2.) (a.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:—cītum, (from cieo), dătum, itum, lītum, quītum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, sītum, and stātum.

(b.) So, also, had the obsolete futum, from fuo, whence comes futurus.

Exc. 2. (a.) Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short; as,

cěcidi, cěcini, tětigi, didici, from cădo, căno, tango, and disco.

(b.) The second syllable of reduplicated perfects is sometimes made long by position; as, mŏmōrdi, tētēndi.— Cécīdi from cædo, and pĕpēdi from pēdo, retaining the quantity of their first root also have the second syllable long.

Exc. 3. Desiderative verbs in *urio* have the *u* short, though, in the third root of the verbs from which they are formed, it is long; as, cænātŭrio from cænātū, the third root of cæno. So partūrio, ēsūrio, nuptūrio.

Exc. 4. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third root of verbs of the first conjugation, have the i short; as, $cl\bar{a}mito$, $v\tilde{o}lito$. See § 187, II. 1.

Exc. 5. A few other derivatives deviate from the quantity of their primitives.

1. Some have a long vowel from a short one in the primitive. Such are,

Dēni, from děcem. Fōmes and \ from Fōmentum, \ foveo. Hūmānus, from hōmo. Lāterna, from lāteo, Lītera from līno. Lex (lēgis), from lēgo. Möbilis, from möveo. Persöna, from persöno. Rēgūla and } from Rex (rēgis), J rēgo. Sēcius, from sěcus. Sēdes, from sědeo. Sēmen, from sěro. Stīpendium, from stips (stīpis). Suspīcio, ōnis, from suspīcor. Tēgūla, from těgo.

2. Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive. Such are,

Dicax, from dico.
Dux (ducis), from duco.
Fides, from fido.
Labo, from labor, dep. v.
Lucerna, from luceo.

Mŏlestus, from mōles. Năto, from nātu. sup. Nŏto, from nōtu. sup. ŏdium, from ōdi. Quăsillus, from quālus. Săgax, from sāgio. Sŏpor, from sōpio. Vădum, from vādo. Vŏco, from vox (vōcis.) NOTE 1. Disertus comes regularly (by syncope) from dissertus, the prefix dis being short, § 299, 1. Cf. dirimo and diribeo, where s is changed to r. See § 196, (b.) 2.

Note 2. Some other words might, perhaps, with propriety be added to these lists; but, in regard to the derivation of most of them, grammarians are not entirely agreed.

REMARK 1. Some of these irregularities seem to have arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus mobilis may have been movibilis; motum, movitum, etc.

REM. 2. Sometimes the vowel in the derived word being naturally short, is restored to its proper quantity by removing one of the consonants which, in the primitive, made it long by position; as, nax, nacis. So, when the vowel of the primitive is naturally long, but has been made short before another vowel, it is sometimes restored to its original quantity by the insertion of a consonant; as, hibernus, from hiems.

REM. 3. The first syllable in liquidus is supposed to be common, as coming either from liquor or liqueo; as,

Crassaque conveniant l'quidis, et l'iquida crassis. Lucr. 4, 1255.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 285. 1. Compound words retain the quantity of the words which compose them; as,

dēfēro, of dē and fēro; ădôro, of ad and ôro. So ăborior, amovêo, circumeo, comedo, enttor, produco, suborno.

2. The change of a vowel or a diphthong in forming the compound does not alter its quantity; as,

concido, from cădo; concido, from cædo; ērigo, from rēgo; reclūdo, from claudo; inīquus, from æquus.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds:—agnitus and cognitus, from notus; dējēro and pējēro, from jūro; hōdie, from hōc die: nihtium and nihil, from hīlum; causidicus, and other compounds ending in dīcus, from dīco.

Exc. 2. Imbēcillus, from băcillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambitus has the penult long from tum, but the nouns ambitus and ambitio follow the rule.

Exc. 3. Innüba, prônüba, and subnüba, from nübo, have u short; but in connubium, it is common.

Exc. 4. O final, in the compounds of do and sto, is common, though long in the simple verbs. § 294, (a.)

NOTE 1. Prepositions of one syllable, which end in a vowel, are long (§ 294, (a.); those which end in a single consonant are short (§ 299, 1.)—Trā from trans is long; as, trādo, trādāco.

Exc. 5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:—pròfānus, pròfāri, pròfecto, pròfestus, pròficiscor, pròfiteor, pròfitgio, pròfitgus, pròcella, pròfundas, prònépos, pròneptis, and protervus. It is common in procūro, profundo, propago, propello, and propino.—Respecting præ in composition before a vowel, see § 283, II. Exc. 1.

Rem. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, prophéta. In prologus, propôla, and propino, it is common.

Rem. 2. The inseparable prepositions di (for dis) and se are long; as,

dīdūco, sēpāro. Respecting disertus, see § 284, Exc. 5, 2, N. 1.

Rem. 3. (a.) The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rěmitto, rěfěro, rědámo.

(b.) Re is sometimes lengthened in religio, reliquia, reliquis, reperit, retulit, repulit, recidit, reducere, where some editors double the consonant following re-Cf. § 307, 2. In the impersonal verb refert, re is long, as coming from res.

Rem. 4. A ending the former part of a compound word, is long; the other vowels are short; as,

mālo, quāpropter, trādo, (trans do); něfas, valědīco, hujuscěmodi; biceps, tridens, omnīpotens, signīfīco; hodie, quandoquidem, phīlosophus; ducenti, locuples, Trojūgēna; Polydorus, Eurypylus, Thrasybūlus.

Exc. 1. A. A is short in quăsi, eădem, when not an ablative, and in some Greek compounds; as, cătăpulta, hexămeter.

Exc. 2. E. E is long in crēdo, nēmo, nēquam, nēquāquam, nēquidquam, nēquis, nēquitia; mēmet, mēcum, tēcum, sēcum, sēse, vēcors, vēsānus, vēnēf icus, and vidēlicet;—also in words compounded with se for sex or sēmi; as, sēdēcim, sēmestris, sēmodius; but in selibra it is found short in Martial.

NOTE 2. (a.) The first e in videlicet, as in vide, is sometimes made short. See § 295, Exc. 3.

(b.) E is common in some verbs compounded with făcio; as, liquefăcio, pătefăcio, rărefăcio, tābefăcio, těpefăcio.

Exc. 3. 1. (1.) I is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, (§ 296;) as, quidam, quivis, quilibet, quantivis, quanticumque, tantidem, unicuique, eidem, reipublica, utrique.

(2.) I is also long in those compounds which may be separated without altering the sense, (§296;) as, lūdīmāgister, sīquis, agrīcultūra.

(3.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tibicen for tibiicen, from tibia and cano. See § 283, III.

(4.) I is long in bīgæ, quadrīgæ, īlicet, scīlicet.

(5.) In idem, when masculine, i is long; but when neuter, it is short. The iof $\dot{u}bique$ and $\dot{u}tr\ddot{o}bique$, the second in $\dot{u}bidem$, and the first in $n\bar{i}m\bar{i}rum$, are long. In $\dot{u}bicumque$, as in $\dot{u}bi$, \dot{i} is common.

(6.) Compounds of dies have the final i of the former part long; as, biduum, trīduum, merīdies, quotīdie, quotīdianus, prīdie, postrīdie.

Note 3. In Greek words, i, ending the former part of a compound, is short; as, Callimachus; unless it comes from the diphthong ei (u), or is made long or common by position.

Exc. 4. O. (1.) In compounds, the final o of contro, intro, retro, and guando (except quandoquidem,) is long; as, controversia, introduco, retrocedo, quandoque. O is long also in ălioqui (-quin), and utroque.

(2.) O is long in the compounds of quō and eo; as, quōmodo, quōcumque, quōnam, quolibet, quominus, quocirca, quovis, quoque (i. e. et quo); eodem, eone; but in the conjunction quoque, it is short.

(3.) Greek words which are written with an omega (ω) have the o long; as, geometra, Mīnotaurus, lăgopus.

Exc. 5. U. Uis long in Jupiter (Jovis pater), and judico (jus dico).

III. INCREMENT OF NOUNS.

§ 286. 1. A noun is said to increase, when, in any of its cases, it has more syllables than in the nominative singular; as, pax, pācis; sermo, sermonis. The number of increments in any case of a noun is equal to that of its additional syllables.

2. Nouns in general have but one increment in the singular, but *iter*, supellex, compounds of caput ending in ps, and sometimes jecur, have two increments; as,

iter, i-tīn-ē-ris; supellex, su-pel-lec-ti-lis; anceps, an-cīp-i-tis; jēcur, jē-cīnŏ-ris.

REMARK. The double increase of iter, etc., in the singular number arises from their coming from obsolete nominatives, containing a syllable more than those now in use; as, itiner, etc.

3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

4. The last syllable of a word is never considered as the increment. If a word has but one increment, it is the penult; if two, the antepenult is called the first, and the penult the second; and if three, the syllable before the antepenult is called the first, the antepenult the second, and the penult the third increment; as,

1 1 2 3 ser-mo, ser-mō-nis, ser-mōn-i-bus; i-ter, i-tīn-ē-ris, it-ī-nēr-i-bus.

5. In the third declension, the quantity of the first increment is the same in all the other cases as in the genitive singular; as,

sermānis, sermāni, sermānem, sermāne, sermūnes, sermānum, sermānibus. Bābus, or bābus, from bos, bōvis, is lengthened by contraction from bŏvibus.

NOTE. As adjectives and participles are declined like nouns, the same rules of increment apply to all of them; and so also to pronouns.

INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

OF THE FIRST, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DECLENSIONS.

§ 287. 1. When nouns of the first, fourth, and fifth declensions increase in the singular number, the increment consists of a vowel before the final vowel, and its quantity is determined by the first general rule with its exceptions, § 283, I.

Thus, aura, gen. aurāi, § 283, I. Exc. 3, (a.): fructus, dat. fructŭi, § 283, I. (a.): dies, gen. diei, § 283, I. Exc. 2, (a.)

INCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

2. The increments of the second declension in the singular number are short; as,

gener, generi; satur, saturi; tener, teneri; vir, viri. Thus,

Ne, pučri, ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. A. 6, 833. Monstra sinunt; $g\check{e}n\check{e}ros$ externis aff ŏre ab ōris. Id. A. 7, 270.

Exc. The increment of Iber and Celiber is long. For that of genitives in ius, see § 283, Exc. 4.

INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

3. The increments of the third declension and singular number in a and o are long; those in e, i, u, and y, are short; as,

ănimal, ănimālis; audax, audācis; sermo, sermonis; férox, férocis; ŏpus, ŏpēris; cěler, célēris; mīles, mīlitis; supplex, supplicis; murmur, murmăris; dux, dūcis; chlămys, chlāmydis; Styx, Stygis. Thus,

Pronăque cum spectent ănimalia cetera terram. Ovid. M. 1, 84. 11sec tum multiplici populos sermône replebat. Virg. A. 4, 189. Incumbent généris lapsi sarcire ruinas. Id. G. 4, 249. Qualem virgineo demessum politee florem. Id. A. 11, 68. Adapice, ventôsi céciderunt murmüris aure. Id. E. 9, 58.

Exceptions in Increments in A.

- 1. (a.) Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short; as, Annībal, Annībālis; Amilcar, Amilcāris.
- (b.) Par and its compounds, and the following—anas, mas, vas (vadis), baccar, hepar, jubar, lar, nectar, and sal—also increase short.
- 2. A, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as, daps, dăpis; Arabs, Arăbis.
- 3. Greek nouns in a and as (ădis, ănis, or ătis) increase short; as, lampas, lampădis; Mělas, Mělánis, poēma, poëmătis.
- 4. The following in ax increase short:—ābax, anthrax, Arctophylax, Atax, Atrax, climaz, cólax, córax, and nycticórax, dropaz, fax, harpax, panax, smilax, and stŷrax.—The increment of Sýphax is doubtful.

Exceptions in Increments in O.

1. O, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short; as,

marmor, marmorus; corpus, corpŏris; ĕbur, ĕbŏris. But os (the mouth), and the neuter of comparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of ador is common.

2. O is short in the increment of Greek nouns in o or on, which, in the oblique cases, have omicron, but long in those which have omega; as,

Aēdon, Aēdonis; Agamemnon, Agamemnonis:—Plato, Platonis; Sinon, Sinonis; Sicyon, Sicyonis. Sidon, Orion, and Ægæon, have the increment common.

3. (a.) In the increment of gentile nouns in o or on, whether Greek or barbaric, o is generally short; as,

Măcedo, Mücedonis. So, Amazones, Aones, Myrmidones, Santones, Saxones, Senones, Teutones, etc.

- (b.) But the following have o long:—Eburones, Lacones, Iones, Nasamones, Suessones (or -iones), Vettones, Burgundiones. Britones has the o common.
- 4. Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectoris; rhētor, rhētoris; Agēnor, Agēnoris.
- 5. Compounds of pus, $(\pi \circ \tilde{v}_s)$, as tripus, $p\tilde{o}l\tilde{y}pus$, $Ed\tilde{v}pus$, and also arbor, memor, bos, compos, impos, and lepus, increase short.
- 6. O, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as,

scrobs, scröbis; inops, inopis; Dölöpes. But it is long in the increment of cercops, Cyclops, and hydrops.

7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappadox, and pracox, is also short.

Exceptions in Increments in E.

- Nouns in en, enis (except Hymen), lengthen their increment;
 as, Sīren, Sīrēnis. So, Aniēnis, Nēriēnis, from Anio and Nērio, or rather from the obsolete Anien and Nēriēnes.
- 2. Hæres, Wcuples, mansues, merces, and quies—also Iber, ver, lex, rex, ālec or ālex (hāl-) narthex and vervex—plebs and seps—increase long.
- 3. Greek nouns in es and er (except aër and æther) increase long; as, magnes, magnētis; crāter, crātēris.

Exceptions in Increments in I.

 Nouns and adjectives in ix, increase long; as, victrix, victricis; fēlix, fēlicis.

Exc. Cálix, Cílix, coxendix, filix, fornix, hystrix, lárix, nix, pix, sălix, strix, and rarely sandix or sandyx, increase short.

- 2. Vibex and the following nouns in is increase long:—dis, glis, lis, vis, Nēsis, Quiris, and Samnis. The increment of Psophis is common.
- 3. Greek rouns, whose genitive is in inis increase long; as, delphin, delphinis; Sălămis, Sălămīnis.

Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in *udis*, *uris*, and *utis*, from nominatives in *us*, have the penult long; as,

pālus, pālūdis; tellus, tellūris; virtus, virtūtis. But intercus, Līgus and pēcus, pēcūdis, increase short.

2. Fur, frux, (obs.), lux, and Pollux, increase long.

Exceptions in Increments in Y.

- Greek nouns whose genitive is in ynis, increase long; as, Trāchyn, Trāchÿnis.
- 2. The increment of bombyx, Ceyx, gryps, and mormyr, is long; that of Bebryx and sandyx is common.

INCREMENTS OF THE PLURAL NUMBER.

§ 288. 1. A noun in the plural number is said to increase, when, in any case, it has more syllables than in the ablative singular.

REMARK. When the ablative singular is wanting, or its place is supplied by a form derived from a different root, an ablative may, for this purpose, be assumed, by annexing the proper termination to the root of the plural.

 When a noun increases in the plural number, its penult is called the plural increment; as, sa in mūsārum, no in dóminorum, pi in rūpium and rūpibus. § 289, 290. PROSODY.—QUANTITY—INCREMENT OF VERBS. 329

3. In plural increments, a, e, and o, are long, i and u are short; as,

bonārum, animābus, rērum, rēbus, genērorum, ambobus; sermonibus, lacubus. Thus,

Appia, longārum, tērītur, rēgīna viārum. Stat. S. 2, 2, 12. Sunt lacrymæ rērum, et mentem mortālia tangunt. Virg. A. 1, 462. Atque ālii, quōrum cōmedia prisca virōrum est. Hor. S. 1, 4, 2. Portūbus ēgrēdior, ventisque fērentībus ūsus. Ovid.

IV. INCREMENT OF VERBS.

- § 289. 1. A verb is said to increase, when, in any of its parts, it has more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active; as, das, dă-tis; dŏces, dŏ-cē-mus.
- 2. The number of increments in any part of a verb is equal to that of its additional syllables. In verbs, as in nouns, the last syllable is never considered the increment. If a verb has but one increment, it is the penult; and this first increment, through all the variations of the verb, except in reduplicated tenses, continues equally distant from the first syllable. The remaining increments are numbered successively from the first; as,

ă-mas,	mŏ-nes,	au-dis,
1	1	1 '
ă-mā-mus,	mŏ-nē-tur,	au-dī-tis,
1 2	1 2	1 2
ăm-ā-bā-mus,	mŏn-ē-rē-tur,	au-di-ē-bas,
1 2 3	1 2 3	1234
ăm-ā-vĕ-rā-mus.	mŏn-ē-bĭm-ĭ-ni.	au-di-ē-bām-ĭ-ni.

- 8. A verb in the active voice may have three increments; in the passive, it may have four.
- 4. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice, formed from the same root, may be supposed.

§ 290. In the increments of verbs, a, e, and o, are long; i and u are short; as,

ămāre, monēre, facitote, volumus, regebamini. Thus,

Et cantāre pāres, et respondēre pārāti. Virg. E. 7, 5. Sic ēquīdem dūcēbam ānīmo, rēbarque fūtūrum. Id. A. 6, 690. Cumque lōqui pōtērit, mātrem fācītōte sālūtet. Ooid, M. 9, 378. Scindtur incertum stūdia in contrāria vulgus. Virg. A. 2, 39. Nos nūmērus sūmus, et frūges consūmēre nāti. Hor. Ep. 1, 2, 27.

(a.) Exceptions in Increments in A.

The first increment of do is short; as, dămus, dăbāmus, dăret, dătūrus, circumdăre, circumdăbāmus.

(b.) Exceptions in Increments in E.

1. E before r is short in the *first* increment of all the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation, and in the *second* increment in *bĕris* and *bĕre*; as,

rēgēre (infin. and imperat.), rēgēris or rēgēre (pres. ind. pass.), rēgērem and rēgērer (imp. subj.); amābēris, amābēre; monēbēris, monēbēre.

Note 1. In $v \in lim$, $v \in lis$, etc., from $v \in los$, (second person, regularly $v \in lis$, by syncope and contraction $v \in lis$), $e \in lis$ is not an increment, but represents the root vowel $e \in lis$, and is therefore short; $e \in lis$, and $e \in lis$, 1.

2. E is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,

ămāvēram, ămāvērat, ămāvērim, monuerimus, rexero, audīvēritis.

Note 2. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, e before r retains its original quantity; as, fleram, for fleveram.

For the short e before runt, in the perfect indicative, as, stětěrunt, see Systole, § 307.

(c.) Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. I before v or s, in tenses formed from the second root, is long; as.

pětīvi, audīvi, quæsīvit, dīvīsit, audīvīmus, dīvīsīmus, audīvēram.

2. I is long, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, in the final syllable of the third root of gaudeo, arcesso, dīvido, făcesso, lăcesso, pēto, quæro, recenseo and oblīviscor; as,

gāvīsus, arcessītus, dīvīsus, fácessītus, lācessītus, pētītus, quæsītus, rēcensītus, oblitus; gāvīsūrus, etc.

3. I in the first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in *imus* of the perfect indicative, is long; as,

audire, audirem, auditus, auditūrus, pres. rēnīmus, but in the perfect vēnīmus. So in the ancient forms in ībam, ībo, of the fourth conjugation; as, nutrībat, lēnībunt; and also in ībam and ībo, from eo.

NOTE 3. When a vowel follows, the i is short, by § 288; as, audiunt, audiebam.

- 4. I is long in the first and second persons plural of subjunctives in sim, sis, sit, etc., (§ 162, 1,); as, sīmus, sītis, vēlītius, vēlītis, and their compounds; as, possīmus, adsīmus, mālīmus, nōlīmus. So also in nōlīto, nōlīte, nōlītōte, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.
- 5. I in ris, rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,

vīdērīs, Mart., occīdērīs, Hor.; vīdērītis (Ovid), dēdērītis (Id.); fēcērīmus (Catull.), ēgērīmus (Virg.)

(d.) Exceptions in Increments in U.

U is long in the increment of supines, and of participles formed from the third root of the verb; as,

secūtus, solūtus, secūtūrus, solūtūrus.

RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF PENULTIMATE AND ANTEPENULTIMATE SYLLABLES.

I. PENULTS.

§ 291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,

ămārācus, Ægyptiācus, rusticus, trīticum, viāticum.

Except Dācus, mērācus, ŏpācus; āmīcus, aprīcus, fīcus, mendīcus, pīcus, postīcus, pūdīcus, spīcus, umbilīcus, vīcus.

2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, and atrum, lengthen the penult; as,

candēlābrum, dēlābrum, lāvācrum, vērātrum.

3. Nouns in ca lengthen the penult; as, ăpŏthēca, cloāca, lactūca, lorīca, phōca.

Except ălica, brassica, dica, fulica, mantica, pedica, pertica, scătica, phălârica, tănica, vontca; and also some nouns in ica derived from adjectives in icus; as, fabrica, grammătica, etc. So mănicæ.

4. Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiades, Priamides.

Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or ēs (185); as, Atrīdes, from Atrēus; Neoclīdes, from Neoclēs; except, also, Amphiarāīdes, Bēlīdes, Amyclīdes, Lycurgīdes.

5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult; as,

Achāis, Chrysēis, Mīnōis. Except Phōcăis and Thēbāis. The penult of Nēreis is common.

6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as,

rādo, cēdo, dulcēdo, formīdo, rōdo, testūdo. Except cădo, đườdo, ĕdo (to eat), comēdo, Macĕdo, modo, sŏlido, spădo, trēpido. Rudo is common.

7. Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it; as,

callidus, herbidus, limpīdus, līvidus, perf idus; crūdus, lūdus, nūdus, sūdus, ūdus. Except Idus, fīdus, inf idus, nīdus, sīdus.

8. Nouns in ga and go lengthen the penult; as,

sāga, collēga, aurīga, rūga; imāgo, cālīgo, arūgo. Except călīga, ossifrăga, tŏga, plăga, (a region, or a net), fúga and its compounds, stěga, eclòga, égo, harpăgo, ligo.

9. Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,

crīnāle, mantēle, ancīle; āles, mīles, proles; annālis, crūdēlis, cīvīlis, cūrūlis.— Except māle;—verbals in ilis and bilis; as, āgilis, āmābilis;—adjectives in attlis; as, umbrātilis,;—and also, indoles, soboles; pēriscēlis, dapsīlis, grācīlis, hāmīlis, pārīlis, simīlis, stērīlis, mūgīlis, strīgīlis.

- 10. Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as, phásēlus, quērēla, prēlum. Except gēlus, gēlum, scēlus.
- 11. Diminutives in olus, ola, olum, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in

ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables, shorten the penult; as,

urceŏlus, filióla, lectúlus, rátiuncúla, corcúlum, pābūlum; rátilus, garrúlus, fābūla. Except ásīlus.

12. Words in ma lengthen the penult; as,

fāma, poēma, rīma, plūma. Except ănima, cŏma, dĕcŭma, lacrima, victima,

13. A vowel before final men or mentum is long; as,

lëvamen, gramen, crimen, flumen, jumentum, atramentum. Except tamen, colimen, Hymen, elëmentum, and a few verbal nouns derived from verbs of the second and third conjugations; as, alimentum, döcumen or döcumentum, ēmölumentum, mönumentum, rēgimen, spēcimen, tēgimen, etc.

14. Words ending in imus shorten the penult; as,

ānīmus, dēcīmus, finitīmus, fortissimus, maxīmus. Except bīmus, līmus, mīmus, opīmus, quādrīmus, sīmus, trīmus, and two superlatives, īmus and primus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same; as, děcůmus, optůmus, maxůmus, for děcůmus, etc.

15. A, e, o, and u, before final mus and mum, are long; as,

rāmus, rēmus, extrēmus, prōmus, dāmus, pōmum, völēmum. Except ātōmus, balsāmum, cinnāmum, dōmus, glōmus, hūmus, postūmus, thālāmus, tōmus, cālāmus, nēmus.

16. (a.) Words in na, ne, ni, and nis, lengthen the penult; as,

lāna, arēna, carīna, mātrōna, lūna, māne, septēni, octōni, inānis, finis, immūnis. Except advēna, cottāna, ptisāna, mina, yēna, bēne, sine, cānis, cīnis, jūvēnis; and the following in ina,—buccīna, dōmina, fiscina, fēmīna, fuscina, lāmīna, māchīna, pāgīna, pātīna, sarcīna, tibīcīna, trūtīna: and in plur. āpinæ, minæ, nundīnæ. So compounds of gēno; as, indīgēna.

(b.) Verbs in ino and inor shorten the penult; as,

destino, fascino, inquino, sino, criminor. Except festino, propino, săgino, opinor, and the compounds of clino; as, inclino, etc.

17. (a.) Adjectives in inus, when they express time, or indicate a material or an inanimate substance, shorten the penult; as,

crastīnus, diūtīnus, pristīnus, pērendīnus: fāgīnus, crocīnus, hyācinthīnus, ădāmantīnus, crystallīnus, ŏleāgīnus, bombycīnus. Except mātūtīnus, rēpentīnus, vespertīnus.

(b.) Other adjectives and words in inus and in inum lengthen the penult; as,

canīnus, bīnus, pēregrīnus, mārīnus, clandestīnus, sūpīnus: līnum. Except ācinus, dsinus, coccinus, cominus, ēmīnus, cophinus, dominus, fāticīnus, protinus, sīnus, terminus, gēmīnus, circīnus, mīnus, vāticīnus, succinum, fascīnum.

18. A, e, o, and u, before final nus and num, are long; as,

urbīnus, sērēnus, patrūnus, prūnus, mūnus, trībūnus, fānum, vēnēnum, dōnum. Except ānus, an old woman, galbānus, mānus, ōceānus, plātānus, ēbēnus, gēnus, līmīgēnus, pēnus, tēnus, Vēnus, vīnus, būnus, sonus, thrūnus; lāgānum, peucēdānum, popānum, toppānum, abrotōnum.

19. Words ending in ba, bo, pa, and po, shorten the penult; as,

fāba, jūba, syllāba; bibo, cūbo, probo; ālāpa, lūpa, scāpha; crēpo, participo. Except glēba, scrība, būbo, glūbo, lībo, nūbo, scrībo, sīpho, cēpa, cūpa, pāpa, pūpa, rīpa, scēpa, stūpa; cēpo, rēpo, stēpo.

20. Words in al, ar, are, and aris, lengthen the penult; as,

tribūnal, vectīgal: lūpānar, pulvīnar; altāre, lāqueāre; nāris. Except animal, capītal, cabītal, torāl, jūbar, sālar, māre, bīmāris, hīlāris, canthāris, cappāris, Icaris.

21. Before final ro or ror, a and e are short; i, o, and u, are long; as,

ăro, păro, fero, gero, sero, celero, tempero, queror; miror, spīro, tiro; auctoro, ignoro, oro; curo, duro, figuro; luror. Except declaro, pero, spero; foro, moror, soror, voro, furo, săturo; and derivatives from genitives increasing short; as, auguror, decoro, memoro, murmuro, etc.; from augur, auguris; decus, decoris, etc.

22. Before final rus, ra, rum, e is short; the other vowels are long; as,

mērum, mērus, hēdēra, sērum, cētērum; cārus, mīrus, mōrus, mūrus, gyrus; āra, spīra, ōra, nātūra, tōrum.

Except, 1. austērus, gălērus, plērus, procērus, sincērus, sērus, sevērus, vērus,

crātēra, cēra, pēra, panthēra, statēra.

Exc. 2. barbārus, cammārus, cāmūrus, canthārus, chŏrus, fŏrus, hellēbōrus, nūrus, opipārus, ovipārus, phosphōrus, pirus, sātījrus, scārus, spārus, tartārus, torus, zēphījrus; amphōra, ancōra, cithāra, hāra, lyra, mora, purpūra, philyra, pyra, sātīra; fŏrum, gārum, pārum, suppārum.

- 23. Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as, fūmōsus, vīnōsus.
- 24. Nouns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, piètas, civitas, bónitas.
- 25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter and itus shorten it; as,

stātim, (constantly), virītim, tribūtim; acriter, fundītus. Except stătim, (immediately), affātim.

26. (a.) Words in ates, itis, otis, and in ata, eta, ota, uta, lengthen the penult, as,

vāles, pěnātes, vītis, mītis, căryōtis, Icăriōtis, pīrāta, mēta, poēta, ălūta, cīcūta. Except šitis, pōtis, drāpēta, nōta, rota.

- (b.) Nouns in ita shorten the penult; as, ămita, nāvita, orbita, sēmita. Except pītuīta.
- 27. Nouns in atum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as,

lăpâtum, ăconītum, vērūtum. Except defrutum, pulpītum, petoritum, lătum (mud), compitum.

28. Nouns and adjectives ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,

barbātus, grātus, bōlētus, fācētus, crīnītus, pērītus, ægrōtus, tōtus, argūtus, hirsūtus. Except cātus, lātus, (-ēris), impētus, mētus, vēgētus, vētus; ānhēlītus, dīgītus, grātutus, hālītus, hospītus, servītus, spīrītus; antidotus, notus, quotus, totus (so great); arbūtus, pūtus; incligius; and derivatives from perfect participles having a short penult; as, exercitus, hābītus.

29. A penultimate vowel before v is long; as,

clūva, olīva, dives, nāvis, civis, păpāver, pāvo, privo, ovum, prāvus, æstīvus, fūgitīvus. Except avis, brevis, gravis, levis, ovis; cavo, gravo, juvo, lavo, levo, ovo; avus, cavus, favus, novus, favor, pavor, novem.

30. Words ending in dex, dix, mex, nix, lex, rex, lengthen the penult; as,

codex, jūdex; lodix, radix; cimex, pūmex; jūnix; ilex; carex, mūrex. Except culex, silex, rumex.

II. ANTEPENULTS.

§ 292. 1. I is short in diminutives in iculus and icellus (a, um), whether nouns or adjectives; as,

colliculus, dulciculus, crăticula, pellicula, mollicellus. Except words in which the preceding vowel is short; as, căticula, cănicula: or in which i is long in the primitive; as, cornicula, from cornix, -īcis.

2. Numerals in ginti, ginta, ēni, and esimus, lengthen the antepenult; as,

vīginti, quādrāginta, trīcēni, quinquāgēsīmus.

- 3. O and u before final lentus are short; as, vinolentus, fraudulentus, pulverulentus, truculentus.
- 4. A vowel before final nea, neo, nia, nio, nius, nium, is long; as,

ăranea, linea, caneo, munia, punio, Făvonius, patrimonium. Except castănea, tinea, mâneo, mineo, môneo, sêneo, têneo, ignôminia, luscinia, vênia, lânio, vênio, ingénium, gênius, sênio, sênium; words in cinium, as, lênôcinium; and derivatives in onius, when o in the root of the primitive is short; as, Agâmemnônius, from Agamemnon, -onis.

5. Words ending in areo, arius, arium, erium, orius, orium, lengthen the antepenult; as,

āreo, cībārius, plantārium, dictērium, censōrius, tentōrium. Except căreo, vărius, desīdērium, impērium, māgistērium, mīnistērium.

- 6. Adjectives in atticus, attilis, lengthen the antepenult; as, ăquāticus, plumātilis. Except some Greek words in ăticus; as, grammăticus.
- 7. I before final tūdo is short: as. altitūdo, longitūdo.
- 8. Verbals in bilis lengthen a but shorten i in the anteneult; as, ămābilis, mīrābilis; crēdibilis, terribilis. In hābilis, b belongs to the root.
- 9. U before v is short, (except in $J\bar{u}verna$); as, jūvenis, jūvenālis, jūvenīlītas, flūvius, dīlūvium.

III. PENULT OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 293. 1. Patrials and proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, shorten the penult:-

ba, ca,1	de, le,4	o,6 on,7	ges, les,	dus,13 eus,14	ena,19 anes,	arus, erus, ²¹	atus, ²² itus, ²³
$1a,^2$	pe,5	os,8	lis, 10	gus,15	enes,	yrus,	otus.24
be,	re,	er,9	bus,	lus,16	aris,	asus,	
ce,3	al,	mas,	cus,11	mus,17	yris,	osus,	
che,	il.	ras,	chus,12	phus, 18	asis,20	usus.	

Exceptions.

¹Mărīca, Nāsīca.—²Erīphŷla, Messāla, Phīlomēla, Suādēla.—³Bĕrĕnīce.—⁴Erīphÿle, Neobūle, Pĕrīmēle.—⁵Eurōpe, Sīnōpe.—6Carthāgo, Cūpāvo, Cūpīdo, Orīgo, Theāno.—7Alēmon, Anthēdon, Chalcēdon, Iāson, Phīlēmon, Pölŷpēmon, Sarpēdon, Thermōdon.—8Cercÿros, Pēpārēthos, Pharsālos, Sērīphos.—9Mēleāger.—¹9Bessālis, Eumēlis, Jūvĕnālis, Martiālis, Phāsēlis, Stvmphālis.—¹¹Bēnācus, Caūcus, Grānīcus, Nūmīcus, Trīvīcus.—¹²Ophiūchus.—¹³Abÿdus.—¹⁴Cāphārcus, Enīpeus, Prōmētheus, Phōrōneus, Salmōneus, Oīleus.—¹⁵Cēthēgus.—¹⁵Names in -clus, in -olus (except Eŏlus, Naubōlus), in -bulus, (except Bībūlus) Eumēlus, Gætūlus, Iūlus, Massÿlus, Orbēlus, Pharsālus, Sardānāpālus, Stymphālus.—¹²Some in -dēmus and -phēmus; as, Acādēmus, Pōlŷphēnus.—¹²Scrīphus.—¹²Alcmēna, Athēnæ, Cāmēna, Fīdēna, Messēna, Mūrēna, Mycēnæ.—²²Amāsis.—²¹Hŏmērus, Ibērus.—²²Arātus, Cærātus, Torquātus.—²²Hĕrāclītus, Hermāphrōdītus.—²²Būthrōtus.

2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, lengthen the penult:—

ana,1	sa,	num,7	tas,	nus,12	urus,	etus,16
ina,2	ta,4	tum,	$^{ m dcs,9}$	pus, ¹⁸	esus,15	utus,
ona,3	tæ,5	or,8	tes, 10	irus,	isus,	ytus,17
yna,	enc.6	nas.	tis,11	orus,14	ysus,	yus.

Exceptions.

¹Sēquāna.—²Mŭtīna, Prŏserpīna, Ruspīna, Sarsīna.—³Axŏna, Matrŏna.—⁴Dalmāta, Prŏchýta, Sarmāta, Lāpītha.—⁵Gālātæ, Jaxāmētæ, Massāgētæ, Mācētæ, Saurŏmātas.—6Ciÿmēne, Hēlēne, Melpŏmēne, Nyctīmēne.—7Armīnum, Drēpānum.—8Nūmītor.—9Mīltiādes, Pylādes, Sōtādes, Thūcydīdes; patronymics in -des, (§ 291, 4,) and plurals in -ades.—¹¹Antīphātes, Chārītes, Eurybātes, Ichnōbātes, Energētes, Massāgētes, and all names in -crates.—¹¹Dercētis.—¹²Apīdānus, Apŏnus, Cārānus, Chryšogŏnus, Cimīnus, Clýmēnus, Concānus, Dardānus, Diādūmēnus, Eārīdānus, Fūcīnus, Hēlēnus, Lībānus, Morīni, Mycŏnus, Nebrophōnus, Olēnus, Pēriclýmēnus, Rhōdānus, Santōnus, Sēquāni, Stēphānus, Tēlēgōnus, Termīnus, and names in -conus and -xenus.—¹³Cādpus.—¹⁴Pācōrus, Bospōrus, and names in -chorus and -phorus; as, Stēšīchŏrus, Phosphōrus.—¹⁵Ephēsus, Vogēsus, Völēsus.—¹ūlāpētus, Tāýgētus, Vēnētus.—¹¬Æpýtus, Anytus, Eurytus, Hippōlýtus.

3. The penultimate vowel of the following proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, though followed by a vowel, is long. See § 283, I. Exc. 6.

Ænēas, Æthīon, Achēlōus, Achillēus, Alcyŏnēus, Alexandrīa, Alōeus, Alphēus, Amīnēus, Amphiārāus, Amphīgēnīa, Amphīon, Amythāon, Arīon, Anchīsēus, Atlantēus, Antiochīa, Bioneus, Cæsāreā, Cālaurēa, Calliopēa, Cassiópēa, Cleanthēas, Cýdŏnēus, Cýmŏdòcéa, Cýthèrēa, Dārīus (-ēus), Dēldāmīa Dīdýmāon, Diōmēdēus, Dolichāon, Echīon, Elēus, Endýmiōnēus, Enyo, Eōus, Erebōus, Erecthēus, Gālātēa, Gīgantēus, Hērāclēa (-ēus), Hippòdāmīa, Hýpĕrion, Ilithyīa, Imāon, Iōlaus, Iphīgēnīa, Ixīon, Lāodāmīa, Lātōus, Lesbōus, Lýcāon, Māchāou, Mausōlēum, Mēdēa, Mēnēlāus, Mēthīon, Myrtōus, Ophīon, Orīon, Orīthyīa, Orphēus, Pallantēum (-us), Pandīon, Paphagēa, Pēnēus, Penthesilēa, Phœbēus, Poppēa, Prōtēsīlāus, Pyrēnēus, Sardōus, Thālīa.

Note. Eus in the termination of Greck proper names, is commonly a diphthong; as, Alceus, Cæneus, Orpheus, Pēleus, Perseus, Proteus, Thèseus, Tydeus, which are dissyllables; Bridreus, Enzheus, Marceus, Typhōeus, which are trisyllables, Idômēneus, etc. Cf. § 283, Exc. 6, Note 2. But in those which in Greek are written eus (cios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphēūs. So also in adjectives in eus, whether of Greek or Latin origin; as, Erēbēūs, Erecthēūs, Orphēūs; aurēūs, lignēūs.

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

I. VOWELS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 294. (a.) All monosyllables, except enclitics, ending in a vowel, are long; as,

ã, ãh, đã, stā, ễ, để, mế, tế, sẽ, nẽ, rẽ, ĩ, fĩ, hĩ, quĩ, nĩ, sĩ, O or ởh, đỏ, prỗ, prồh, quố, stō, tũ.

POLYSYLLABLES.

A final.

 A final, in words declined, is short; as, mūsă, templă, căpĭtă, Tȳdeă. Thus,

Mūsă mihi causas memora; quo numine læso Virg. A. 1, 8.

Exc. A final is long in the ablative of the first declension, and in the vocative of Greek nouns in as and es; as,

Mūsā, fundā; O Ænēā, O Pallā, O Anchisā.

2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, ămā, frustrā, anteā, ergā, intrā. Thus,

Extrā fortūnam est quidquid dönātur amīcis. Mart. Epig. 5, 42, 7.

Exc. A final is short in $ei\ddot{a}$, $it\ddot{a}$, $qui\ddot{a}$, and in $p\ddot{u}t\ddot{a}$, when used adverbially, in the sense of 'for example.' It is sometimes short in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta; as, $tr\ddot{g}inta$, etc. In postea, it is common. A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, $alph\ddot{a}$, $b\dot{c}t\ddot{a}$, etc., and

A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alphā, $b\bar{c}t\bar{a}$, etc., and in $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}tant\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, the imitated sound of the trumpet.

E final.

§ 295. E final, in words of two or more syllables, is short; as, nātě, patrě, ipsě, currě, rěgěrě, nempě, antě. Thus,

Incipe, parve puer, rīsu cognoscere mātrem. Virg. E. 4, 60.

REMARK. The enclitics -que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -te, -pte, etc., as they are not used alone, have e short, according to the rule; as, něquě, hūjuscě, suaptě. Cf. § 294, (a.)

Exc. 1. E final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions; as,

Calliŏpē, $T\bar{y}d\bar{t}d\bar{e}$, $f\bar{t}d\bar{e}$. So also in the compounds of $r\bar{e}$ and $d\bar{e}$; as, $qu\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, $h\bar{b}d\bar{e}$, $prid\bar{e}$, $postrid\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{b}t\bar{t}d\bar{e}$, and in the ablative $f\bar{a}m\bar{e}$, originally of the fifth declension.

Exc. 2. E final is long in Greek vocatives from nouns in -es, of the third declension; as, Achillē, Hippóměnē; and in Greek neuters plural; as, cêtē, mělē, pělágē, Tempē.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, e final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as, dŏcē, mŏnē;—but it is sometimes short in căve, vāle, and vīde.

Exc. 4. E final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the second declension; as,

plăcidē, pulchrē, valdē for vălidē, maximē; but it is short in bēnē, mālē, infernē, and supernē.

Exc. 5. Fĕrē, fermē, and ŏhē, have the final e long.

I final.

§ **296.** I final is long; as, $d\check{o}m\check{i}n\bar{i}$, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$, $class\bar{\imath}$, $d\check{o}c\bar{e}r\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$. Thus,

Quid domini făcient, audent cum tălia füres. Virg. E. 3, 16.

Exc. 1. (a.) I final is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, and ibi.

(b.) In *ūbique* and commonly in *ibīdem* it is long, but in *ūbivis* and *ūbinam* it is short.—(c.) In *nīsi*, *quāsi*, and *cui*, when a dissyllable, *i* final is common, but usually short. In *ūtīnam* and *ūtique*, and rarely, also, in *ūtī*, it is short.

Exc. 2. I final is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Pallädi, Minōidi, Tēthǧi.

Exc. 3. I final is short in the vocative of Greek nouns in -is; as, Alexi, Daphni, Pări. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in -is, (us) -entos; as, Simŏi, Pǧrŏi.

Exc. 4. I final is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in -si, or, before a vowel, -sin; as, Dryăsi, hērōisi, Trōāsin.

O final.

§ 297. O final, in words of two or more syllables, is common; as, virgō, amō, quandō. Thus,

Ergő mětu căpita Scylla est inimīca păterno. Virg. Cir. 386. Ergő sollicitæ tu causa, pěcūnia, vītæ es! Prop. 3, 5, 1.

Exc. 1. O final is long in the dative and ablative singular; as, dŏmĭnō, regnō, bonō, suō, illō, eō.

Exc. 2. O final is long in ablatives used as adverbs; as, certō, falsō, měrītō, "ulgō, eō, quō; and also in omnīnō, in ergō, 'for the sake of,' and in the interjection iō.

Remark 1. The final o of verbs is almost always long in poets of the Augustan age.

REM. 2. In poets subsequent to the Augustan age, final o in verbs, in gerunds, and in the adverbs ădeo, ideo, ergo, sero, vero, porro, retro, immo, idcirco, subito, and postremo, is sometimes short.

Exc. 3. O final is short in cito, illico, prófecto, and the compounds of mòdo; as, dummòdó, postmòdó, etc.; and in ègo and hòmo it is more frequently short than long.

Exc. 4. O final in Greek nouns written with an oměga (ω) is long; as, $Cli\delta$, $Did\delta$, $Ath\delta$, and $Andr\delta ge\delta$, (gen.)

U final.

 \S **298.** 1. U final is long; as, $vult\bar{u}$, $corn\bar{u}$, $Panth\bar{u}$, $d\tilde{u}ct\bar{u}$, $d\tilde{u}u$. Thus,

Vultū, quo cœlum tempestātesque sĕrēnat. Virg. A. 1, 255.

Exc. Indu and nenu, ancient forms of in and non, have u short. U is also short in terminations in us short, when s is removed by elision; as, contentu, for contentus. See § 305, 2.

Y final.

2. Y final is short; as, Mōly, Tīphy. Thus,

Mōly vocant superi: nigrā rādice tenetur. Ovid. M. 14, 292.

Exc. Y in the dative Tēthŷ, being formed by contraction, is long. § 283, III.

II. CONSONANTS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 299. 1. Monosyllable substantives ending in a consonant are long; all other monosyllables ending in a consonant are short; as.

sõl, vĩr, fũr, jũs, splēn, vēr, fãr, lār, Nār, pãr, Sēr, fūr, fās, mās, rēs, pēs, Dīs, glis, līs, vis, flōs, mōs, rōs, Trōs, ōs, (ōris), dōs, grūs, rūs, tūs;—něc, in, ăn, ăb, ăd, qutd, quts, quơt, ėt; as,

Ipse dőcet quid ăgam. Fās est ět äb hoste dőcēri. Ovid. M. 4, 428. Vēr ădeo frondi němörum, vēr ūtīle silvis. Virg. G. 2, 323.

NOTE. The rules for the quantity of final syllables ending in a consonant imply that the consonant is single, and that it is preceded by a single vowel. If otherwise the syllable will be long by § 283, IV. and II.

Exc. 1. Cửr, fẽl, mčl, pởl, vừr, ởs (gen. ossis), and probably vas (vădis), are short.

Exc. 2. En, non, quin, sin, cras, plus, cur, and par, are long: so also are particles and pronouns ending in c, except nec, which is short, and the pronouns hic and hoc, in the nominative and accusative, which are common.

Exc. 3. Monosyllabic plural cases of pronouns and forms of verbs in as, es, and is, are long; as, hās, quās, hōs, nōs, vōs, quōs, hīs, quīs;—dās, flēs, stēs, īs, fīs, sīs, vīs; except ĕs from sum which is short.

Exc. 4. The abridged imperatives retain the quantity of their root; as, dic, duc, from dico, duco; fác, fér, from fácio, féro.

POLYSYLLABLES.

D, L, N, R, T, final.

2. Final syllables ending in d, l, n, r, and t, are short; as, illud, consul, carmen, pater, caput. Thus,

Obstăpuit simăl ipse, simul perculsus Achātes. Virg. A. 1, 513. Nōmēn Arīonium Siculas implēvērāt urbes. Ovid. F. 2, 93. Dum löquör, horrör, hābet; parsque est mēmīnisse dölōris. Id. M. 9, 291.

Exc. 1. E in lien is long.

Exc. 2. In Greek nouns, nominatives in n (except those in on, written with an omicron), masculine or feminine accusatives in an or en, and genitives plural in on, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Titān, Orion, Ænēan, Anchisēn, Calliopēn; epigrammaton.

Exc. 3. $A\bar{e}r$, $ath\bar{e}r$, and nouns in $\bar{e}r$ which form their genitive in $\bar{e}ris$, lengthen the final syllable; as,

crater, soter. So also Iber; but the compound Celtiber has sometimes in

Martial its last syllable short.

REMARK. A final syllable ending in t, may be rendered long by a diphthong, by contraction, by syncopation, or by position; as, aut, ăbit for ăbiit, f umāt, for fumāvit, ămānt. See § 283, II. III. IV., and § 162, 7, (d.)

M final.

Note. Final m with the preceding vowel is almost always cut off, when the next word begins with a vowel. See *Ecthlipsis*, § 305, 2.

3. Final syllables ending in m, when it is not cut off, are short; as,

Quam laudas, plūmā? cocto num adest honor idem. Hor. S. 2, 2, 28.

REMARK. Hence in composition the final syllables of cum and circum are short; as, comedo, circumago.

C final.

4. Final syllables ending in c are long; as, $\bar{a}l\bar{e}c$, $ill\bar{i}c$, $ist\bar{a}c$, $ill\bar{u}c$. Thus,

Illīc indocto prīmum se exērcuit arcu. Tib. 2, 1, 69.

Exc. The final syllable of donec is short; as,

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amīcos. Ovid. Trist. 1, 9, 5.

AS, ES, and OS, final.

§ 300. Final syllables in as, es, and os, are long; as,

mūsās, piètās, ămās, Ænēās, quies, sermones, dies, Penelopes, ducenties, mones, honos, viros, dominos. Thus,

Hās autem terrās, Italīque hanc lītöris ōram. Virg. A. 3, 396. Si modo dēs illis cultus, similēsque parātus. Ovid. M. 6, 454.

- Exc. 1. (a.) AS. As is short in ănăs, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ădis or ădos; as, Arcăs, Pallăs; and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, hērēās, lampădăs.
- (δ.) As is short also in Latin nouns in as, ădos, formed like Greek patronymics; as, Appias.
- Exc. 2. ES. (a.) Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospĕs, līmĕs, hĕbĕs; gen. hospĭtis, etc.
- (b.) But it is long in abiēs, aries, paries, Ceres, and pes, with its compounds cornipes, sonipes, etc.
- (c.) Es, in the present tense of sum and its compounds, and in the preposition penes, is short.
- (d.) Es is short in Greek neuters in es; as, căcoēthěs, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plural from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Arcădės, Trões, Amazones; from Arcas, Arcădis, etc.
- Exc. 3. OS. (a.) Os is short in compos, impos, and os (ossis), with its compound exos.

(b.) Os is short in Greek nouns and cases written in the original with omicron; as (1) in all neuters; as, chaōs, ĕpōs, Argōs; (2) in all nouns of the second declension; as, Iliōs, Tÿrōs, Dēlos; except those whose genitive is in ō, (Greek ω); as, Alhōs, gen. Alhō; (3) in genitives singular of the third declension; as, Pallādōs, Tēthyōs, from Pallās and Tēthys.

IS, US, and YS, final.

\$ 301. Final syllables in is, us, and ys, are short; as,

turrīs, mīlitīs, mītis, āmātis, ămābis, māgīs; pectūs, bŏnūs, ējūs, āmāmūs, rursūs, tēnūs; Cāpys, Itys. Thus,

Non ăpis inde tülit collectos sēdūla flōres. Ovid. M. 13, 928. Sēriŭs aut citius sēdem prŏpērāmūs ad ūnam. Id. M. 10, 33. At Cāpys, et quōrum mělior sententia menti. Virg. A. 2, 35.

Exc. 1. IS. (a.) Is is long in plural cases; as,

mūsīs, nobīs; omnīs, urbīs, (for omnēs, urbēs); quīs, (for quēis or quībus). So also in the adverbs grātīs, ingrātīs, and förīs, which are in reality datives or ablatives plural.

Et liquidi simul ignis; ut hīs exordia prīmīs. Virg. A. 6, 33. Quīs ante ōra patrum Trōjæ sub meenbus altis. Id. A. 1, 95. Non omnīs arbusta jūvant, hūmīlesque myrīcæ. Id. E. 4, 2. Adde töt ēgrēgias urbīs, opērumque laborem. Id. G. 2, 155.

- (b.) Is is long in the nominative of nouns whose genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis; as, Samnis, Sălămīs, Simois.
- (c.) Is is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation; as,

audis, nescīs. So also in the second persons, fīs, īs, sīs, vīs, vēlīs, and their compounds; as, adsīs, possīs, quamvīs, mālīs, nolīs, etc. Cf. § 299, 1, Exc. 3.

- (d.) Ris, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as, viděris.
- Exc. 2. US. (a.) Us is long in nouns of the third declension which increase long, and in the genitive singular, and the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension, (§ 89, Rem., and § 283, III.); as,

tellūs, virtūs, incūs;—fructūs. But pălŭs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 65.

(b.) Us is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong ous (οῦς) whether in the nominative or genitive; as, nom. Amāthūs, Opūs, Œdīpūs, trīpūs, Panthūs; gen. Dīdūs, Sapphūs. But compounds of pus (ποῦς), when of the second declension, have us short; as, pōthpūs.

Note. The last syllable of every verse, (except the anapæstic and the Ionic a minore), may be either long or short at the option of the poet.

REMARK. By this is meant, that, although the measure require a long syllable, a short one may be used in its stead; and a long syllable may be used where a short one is required; as in the following verses, where the short syllable ma stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable cu instead of a short one:—

Sanguïneāque mānu crēpītantia concŭtit armă. Ovid. M. 1, 143. Non ĕget Mauri jăcŭlīs, nec arcū. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 2.

VERSIFICATION.

FEET.

§ 302. A foot is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

Feet are either simple or compound. Simple feet consist of two or three syllables; compound feet of four.

I. SIMPLE FEET.

1. Of two Syllables.

	Spondee	.two long, ——; as,	f ündünt.
Ì	Pyrrhic,	two short, \sim ; as,	Děŭs.
	Trochee, or choree,	.a long and a short,; as,	ārmà.
	Iambus	a short and a long, $\smile -$; as,	ěrānt.

2. Of three Syllables.

ļ	Dactyl	a long and two short, ; as,	. cōrpŏră.
(Anapæst,	.two short and a long,; as,	.domini.
Ó	Tribrach,	three short,; as,	făcere.
		three long,; as,	
		a short, a long, and a short,; as,	
	Amphimacrus, or Cretic.	a long, a short, and a long,; as,	. cāstĭtās.
	Bacchīus,	a short and two long, $\sim -$; as,	. Cătōnēs.
	Antibacchius,	.two long and a short,; as,	. Rōmānŭs.

II. COMPOUND FEET.

Dispondee, a double spondee, ———————————————————————————————————
First pæon,
Third paon, a Pyrrhic and a trochee,; as, inimātūs.
Fourth pæon,a Pyrrhic and an iambus, $\smile \smile -$; as,cělěritās.

REMARK. Those feet are called *isochronous*, which consist of equal times; as the spondee, the dactyl, the anapæst, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being considered equal to two short.

METRE.

- / § 303. 1. Metre is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.
- 2. In this general sense, it comprehends either an entire verse, a part of a verse, or any number of verses.
- 3. Metre is divided into dactylic, anapæstic, iambic, trochaic, choriambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original or fundamental foot employed in each.
- 4. A metre or measure, in a specific sense, is either a single foot, or a combination of two feet. In the dactylic, choriambic, and Ionic metres, a measure consists of one foot; in the other metres, of two feet. Two feet constituting a measure are sometimes called a syzygy.

VERSES.

- § 304. A verse is a certain number of feet, arranged in a regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.
 - 1. Two verses are called a distich; a half verse, a hemistich.
- 2. Verses are of different kinds, denominated sometimes, like the different species of metre, from the foot which chiefly predominates in them; as, dactylic, iambic, etc.;—sometimes from the number of feet or metres which they contain; as, sēnārius, consisting of six feet; octŏnārius, of eight feet; mŏnŏmĕler, consisting of one measure; dimēter, of two; trimēter, tetramēter, pentamĕter, hexamĕter;—sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species; as, Sapphic, Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiadic, Glyconic, Phalæcian, Sotadic, Archilochian, Alcmanian, Pherecratic, Aristophanic, etc., from Sappho, Anacreon, Alcœus, Asclepiādes, Glýcon, Phalæcus, Sotādes, Archilŏchus, Alcman, Pherecrătes, Aristophănes, etc.—and sometimes from the particular uses to which they were applied; as, the prosodiac, from its use in solemn processions, the paræmiac, from its frequent use in proverbs.
- 3. A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient, or redundant.
 - (1.) A verse which is complete is called acatalectic.
- (2.) A verse which is deficient, if it wants one syllable at the end, is called *catalectic*; if it wants a whole foot or half a metre, it is called *brachycatalectic*.
- (3.) A verse which wants a syllable at the beginning, is called acephalous.
- (4.) A verse which has a redundant syllable or foot, is called hypercatalectic or hypermeter.
- 4. Hence, the complete name of every verse consists of three terms—the first referring to the *species*, the second to the *number of metres*, and the third to the *ending*; as, the *dactylic trimeter catalectic*

5. A verse or portion of a verse of any kind (measured from the beginning) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half, is called a trihēmimēris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called a penthēmimēris; if seven half feet, or three feet and a half, a hepthēmimēris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, an ennehēmimēris. A portion of a verse consisting of one whole metre and a half, is called a hēmiölius, as being the half of a trimeter.

Note. The respective situation of each foot in a verse is called its place.

6. SCANNING is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

REMARK. In order to scan correctly, it is necessary to know the quantity of each syllable, and also to understand the following poetic usages, which are sometimes called

FIGURES OF PROSODY.

SYNAL EPHA.

§ **305.** 1. Synalæpha is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel.

Thus, terra antiqua is read terr' antiqua; Dardánida infensi, Dardánid infensi; vento huc, vent' huc. So,

Quidve moror? si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos. Virg. A. 2, 102.

Which is scanned thus-

Quidve moror? s' omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos.

(1.) The interjections O, heu, ah, proh, væ, vah, are not elided; as,

O et de Lătiâ, O et de gente Săbīnā. Ovid. M. 14, 832.

Remark. But O, though not elided, is sometimes made short; as, Te Cŏrỹdon O Alexi; tráhit sua quemque vŏluptas. Virg. E. 2, 65.

(2.) Other long vowels and diphthongs sometimes remain unelided, in which case, when in the thesis of a foot, they are commonly made short; as,

Victor apud rapidum Simoenta sub Iliv alto. Virg. A. 5, 261. Anni tempõre eo qui Elēsiæ esse feruntur. Lucr. 6, 717. Ter sunt cônātī impõnere Pēliv Ossam. Virg. G. 1, 281. Glaucō et Pánŏpēæ, et Inōo Mělicertæ. Id. G. 1, 436.

- (3.) Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as, Et vēra incessu pătuit deă. Ille übi mātrem.... Virg. A. 1, 405.
- (4.) Synalæpha in a monosyllable occasionally occurs; as, Si ad vitŭlam spectas, nihil est, quod pocula laudes. Virg. E. 3, 48.

For synalcepha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Ecthlipsis is the elision of a final m with the preceding vowel, when the following word begins with a vowel. Thus,

O cūras hŏmīnum, O quantum est in rōbus īnāne! Pers. 1, 1.

Which is thus scanned-

O curas homin' O quant' est in rebus inane.

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lümen ädemptum. Virg. A. 3, 653.

(1.) This elision was sometimes omitted by the early poets; as, Corpŏrŭm officium est quŏniam prēmĕre omnia deorsum. Lucr. 1, 963.

See § 299, 2.

(2.) Final s, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elided by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes s alone before a consonant; as, content atque (Enn.), for contentus atque; omnibu rēbus. (Lucr.) So,

Tum lăterāli' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.

REMARK. This elision took place principally in short syllables.

For ecthlipsis at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

SYNÆRESIS.

§ 306. 1. Synæresis is the contraction into one syllable of two vowels which are usually pronounced separately. Thus,

Aureā percussum virgā, versumque věnēnis. Virg. A. 7, 190. Eosdem hābuit sēcum, quībus est ēlāta, capillos. Prop. 4, 7, 7. Tītýre, pascentes a flūmine reice capellas. Virg. E. 3, 96.

REMARK 1. So Phaethon is pronounced Phæthon; alveo, alvo; Orphea, Orpha; deorsum, dorsum.

(1.) Synæresis is frequent in ii, iidem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deërat, deëro, deërit, deesse; as,

Præcipitātur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab îsdem. Ovid. M. 4, 92. Sint Mæcēnātes; non deerunt, Flacce, Márones. Mart. 8, 56, 5.

REM. 2. Cui and huic are usually monosyllables.

(2.) When two vowels in compound words are read as one syllable, the former may rather be considered as elided than as united with the latter; as, e in anteambulo, anteire, antehac, dehinc, mehercule, etc., and a in contraire.

(3.) The syllable formed by the union of i or u followed by another vowel retains the quantity of the latter vowel, whether long or short; as, $\bar{a}bi\bar{e}te$, $\bar{a}ri\bar{e}te$, $\bar{a}bi\bar{e}gnae$, $p\bar{a}ri\bar{e}ttbus$, consilium, fortuitus, $N\bar{a}sid\bar{e}nus$, vindēmiātor, omniā; gēnuā, tēnuis, pituita, flūviōrum, etc. In such examples, the i and u are pronounced like initial y and w; as, $\bar{a}by\bar{e}te$, $p\bar{a}ry\bar{e}ttbus$, consilyum, fortwitus, $N\bar{a}sidy\bar{e}nus$, omn- $y\bar{a}$, tenuis, pituita, etc.; and, like consonants, they have, with another consonant, the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel, as in the above examples.

Note. In Statius, the word tënuiore occurs as a trisyllable, in which the three vowels, uio, are united in pronunciation; thus, ten-wio-re.

(4.) Sometimes, after a synalogpha or echthlipsis, two vowels suffer synæresis; as, stellio et, pronounced stell-yet: consilium et,—consil-yet.

(5.) If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis; as, dt, consili, for dii, consilii.

DIÆRESIS.

2. Diærĕsis is the division of one syllable into two; as,

aulār, Troja, silūa, sūādent; for aula, Troja or Troja, silva, suādent. So, sūesco for suesco; rēliqūūs for rēliquus; ecqūis for ecquis; milūus for milvus, etc., as,

Æthěreum sensum, atque aurāi simplīcis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747. Atque ālios ālii irrīdent, Vēněremque süādent. Lucr. 4, 1153. Grammátīci certaut; et ădhuc sub iūdīce lis est. Hor. A. P. 78. Aurārum et sīlūæ mētu. Id. O. 1, 23, 4.

(1.) So in Greek words originally written with a diphthong (u or y); as, élőgéra for élégia, Bacchérá for Bacchéa, Rhætérás for Rhætéra, Plérás for Pliás: and also in words of Latin origin; as, Vêrás for Veius, Aquilérá for Aquileia.

REMARK. This figure is sometimes called dialysis.

SYSTOLE.

§ 307. 1. Systöle is the shortening of a syllable which is long by nature or by position; as,

vidë'n for videsne, in which e is naturally long; săti'n for sătisne, in which i is long by position;—hōdie for hōc die; multimodis for multis mōdis. So,

Dūcere multimodis voces, et flectere cantus. Lucr. 5, 1405.

(1.) By the omission of j after \check{ab} , \check{ad} , \check{cb} , $\check{s}\check{ub}$, and $r\check{e}$, in compound words, those prepositions retain their naturally short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as, $\check{ab}ici$, $\check{ad}icit$, $\check{ob}icis$, etc. Thus,

Si quid nostra tuis ădicit vexătio rebus. Mart. 10, 82, 1.

REMARK. In some compounds the short quantity of $\check{a}d$ and $\check{o}b$ is preserved before a consonant by the elision of the d or b of the preposition, as in $\check{a}p\check{e}rio$, $\check{o}p\check{e}rio$, $\check{o}m\check{i}to$, etc.

(2.) The penult of the third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, stětěrunt, tülërunt, etc.; but others ascribe these irregularities to the errors of transcribers, or the carelessness of writers.

DIASTOLE.

- 2. Diastŏle is the lengthening of a syllable which is naturally short.
- (1.) It occurs most frequently in proper names and in compounds of re; as, Priamides, religio, etc. Thus,

Hanc tībi Prāmīdes mitto, Lēdæa, sălūtem. Ovid. H. 16, 1. Rēlīgione patrum multos servāta per annos. Virg. A. 2, 715.

- (2.) Some editors double the consonant after the lengthened re; as, relligio.
- (3.) Diastole is sometimes called ectăsis.

SYNAPHEIA.

- 3. Synapheia is such a connection of two consecutive verses, that the first syllable of the latter verse has an influence on the final syllable of that which precedes, either by position, synalopha, or ecthlipsis. See §§ 283 and 305.
- (1.) This figure is most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minore.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-

Præceps silvas montesque fugīt Cītus Actæon. Sen.

Here the i in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants, tc.

Omnia Mercŭrio sīmīlis, vēcemque cŏlēremque Et crīnes flāvos.... Virg. A. 4, 558. Dissīdens plēbi nŭmĕro beātērum Exīmit virtus. Hor. O. 2, 2, 18.

In the former of these examples, synapheia and synalæpha are combined, que being elided before et in the following line; in the latter there is a similar combination of synapheia and ecthlipsis.

(2.) By synapheia, the parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses; as,

.... si non offendëret unum-Quemque poëtarum limæ labor et mora... Hor. A. P. 290.

(3.) In hexameter verse a redundant syllable at the end of a line elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next line, by causing the accent to fall on the second syllable of the concluding spondee, and connecting the two verses by synapheia, excites the expectation of something which is to follow, and often tends to magnify the object; as,

Quōs sŭpěr- | -ātră sĩ- | -lēx, jām- | -jām lāp- | -sūră că- | -dēntī- | -que Immĭnet assimīlis. Virg. A. 6, 602.

REMARK. The poets often make use of other figures, also, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthesis, apharesis, syncope, epenthesis, apocope, paragoge, tmesis, antithesis, and metathesis. See § 322.

ARSIS AND THESIS.

- § **308.** (1.) Rhythm is the alternate elevating and depressing of the voice at regular intervals in pronouncing the syllables of verse.
- (2.) The elevation of the voice is called arsis, its depression thesis. These terms designate, also, the parts of a foot on which the elevation or depression falls.
- 1. The natural arsis is on the long syllable of a foot; and hence, in a foot composed wholly of long, or wholly of short syllables, when considered in itself, the place of the arsis is undetermined; but when such foot is substituted for the fundamental foot of a metre, its arsis is determined by that of the latter.

REMARK. Hence, a spondee, in trochaic or dactylic metre, has the arsis on the first syllable; but in iambic or anapæstic metre, it has it on the last.

2. The arsis is either equal in duration to the thesis, or twice as long.

Thus, in the dactyl, — —, and anapæst, — —, it is equal; in the trochee, — —, and iambus, — —, it is twice as long. This difference in the proportionate duration of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhythm. A foot is said to have the descending rhythm, when its arsis is at the beginning, and the ascending, when the thesis is at the beginning.

- 3. The stress of voice which falls upon the arsis of a foot, is called the *ictus*. When a long syllable in the arsis of a foot is resolved into two short ones, the ictus falls upon the former.
- NOTE 1. Some suppose that the terms arsis and thesis, as used by the ancients, denoted respectively the rising and falling of the hand in beating time, and that the place of the thesis was the syllable which received the ictus

NOTE 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now understood, writers differ in regard to the mode of reading verse. According to some, the accent of each word should always be preserved; while others direct that the stress of voice should be laid on the arsis of the foot, and that no regard should be paid to the accent.

It is generally supposed that the final letters elided by synalcepha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

CÆSURA.

§ 309. Casura is the separation, by the ending of a word, of syllables rhythmically or metrically connected.

Cæsura is of three kinds:—1, of the foot; 2, of the rhythm; and 3, of the verse.

1. Cæsura of the foot occurs when a word ends before a foot is completed; as,

Silves- | -trem tenu- | -i Mu- | -sam medi- | -tāris a- | -vēnā. Virg. E. 1, 2.

2. Cæsura of the rhythm is the separation of the arsis from the thesis by the ending of a word, as in the second, third, and fourth feet of the preceding verse.

REM 1. It hence appears that the cæsura of the rhythm is always a cæsura of the foot, as e. g. in the 2d, 3d, and 4th feet of the preceding verse; but, on the contrary, that the cæsura of the foot is not always a cæsura of the rhythm, as e. g. in the fifth foot of the same verse.

(1.) Cæsura of the rhythm allows a final syllable naturally short, to stand in the arsis of the foot instead of a long one, it being lengthened by the *ictus*; as,

Pēctori- | -bus inhi- | -ans spi- | -rantia | consulit | exta. Virg. A. 4, 64.

This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.

- REM. 2. Cæsura of the foot and of the verse do not of themselves lengthen a short syllable, but they often coincide with that of the rhythm.
- 3. Cæsura of the verse is such a division of a line into two parts, as affords to the voice a convenient pause or rest, without injury to the sense or harmony.
- REM. 3. The cæsura of the verse is often called the cæsural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed; in others, it may fall in more than one place, and the choice is left to the poet. Of the former kind is the pentameter, of the latter the hexameter.

The proper place of the cæsural pause will be treated of, so far as shall be necessary, under each species of verse.

. Rem. 4. The effect of the cæsura is to connect the different words harmoniously together, and thus to give smoothness, grace, and sweetness, to the verse.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF METRE.

DACTYLIC METRE.

§ 310. I. A hexameter or heroic verse consists of six feet. Of these the fifth is a dactyl, the sixth a spondee, and each of the other four either a dactyl or a spondee; as,

Āt tūbā | tērrībī- | -lēm sŏnī- | -tūm prŏcūl | ērē cā- | -nōrō. Virg. A. 9, 503. Intōn- |-sī crī- | -nēs lōn- | -gā cēr- | -vicē flū- | ēbānt. Tibull. 3, 4, 27. Lūdērē | quæ vēl- | -lēm cālā- | -mō pēr- | -mīsīt ā- | -grēstī. Virg. E. 1, 10.

1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called *spondaic*; as,

Cara de- | -um sobo- | -les mag- | -num Jovis | Incre- | -mentum. Virg. E. 4, 49.

REMARK 1. In such verses, the fourth foot is commonly a dactyl, and the fifth should not close with the end of a word. Spondaic lines are thought to be especially adapted to the expression of grave and solemn subjects.

2. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees; as,

Quādrupē- | -dāntē pu- | -trēm sŏnī- | -tū quatīt | ūngula | cāmpum. Virg. A. 8, 596. Illi īn- | -tēr sē- | -sē māg- | -nā vī | brāchia tōllunt. Id. A. 8, 452.

REM. 2. Variety in the use of dactyls and spondees in successive lines, has an agreeable effect. Hexameter verse commonly ends in a word of two or three syllables, and a monosyllable at the end of a line is generally ungraceful, but sometimes produces a good effect; as,

Stěrnítůr, | ēxănî- | -mīsquě, trě- | -mēns prō- | -cūmbīt hǔ- | -mī bōs. Virg. A. 5, 481. Pārtŭrī- | -ūnt mōn- | -tēs: nās- | -cētūr | rīdīcǔ- | -lūs mūs. Hor. A. P. 139.

3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the casura. (See § 309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

Romæ | mænia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the *penthemimĕris*, i. e. after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic cæsura. Thus,

Āt domus | Interi- | -or | re- | -galī | splendīdā | lūxū. Virg. A. 1, 637.

5. Instead of the preceding, a cæsura in the thesis of the third foot, or after the arsis of the fourth, was also approved as heroic; as,

Infān- | -dūm rē- | -gīnā || jū- | -bēs rĕnŏ- | -vārĕ dŏ- | -lōrem. Virg. A. 2, 3. Indĕ tō- | -rō pátĕr | Ænē- | -ās || sīc | örsūs ŭb | āltō. Id. A. 2, 2.

REM. 3. When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the hephthemimeris, i. e. after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot; as,

Prīmă tě- | -nēt, || plau- | -sūquě vŏ- | -lat || frěmĭ- | -tūquě sĕ- | -cūndo. Virg. A. 5, 338.

6. The cæsura after the third foot, dividing the verse into exactly equal parts, was least approved; as,

Cuī non | dīctus Hy- | -lās puĕr || ēt Lā- | -tonĭa | Dēlos. Virg. G. 2, 6.

Rem. 4. The cæsural pause between the fourth and fifth feet was considered as peculiarly adapted to pastoral poetry, particularly when the fourth foot was a dactyl, and was hence termed the *bucolic* cæsura; as,

Stant vitu- | -li et tene- | -rīs mu- | -gītībus || āera | complent. Nemes.

NOTE 1. The cæsura after the arsis is sometimes called the masculine or syllabic cæsura; that in the thesis, the feminine or trochaic, as a trochee immediately precedes. When a cæsura occurs in the fifth foot it is usually the trochaic cæsura, unless the foot is a spondee; as,

Frāxīnus | īn sīl- | -vīs pūl- | -chērrīmă, | pīnus in | hortīs. Virg. E. 7, 65.

(a.) It is to be remarked that two successive trochaic cæsuras in the second and third feet are, in general, to be avoided, but they are sometimes employed to express irregular or impetuous motion; as,

Una Eu- | -rūsque No- | -tūsque ru- | -unt crē- | -bērque pro- | -cēllīs. Virg. A. 1, 85.

(b.) Successive trochaic casuras are, in like manner, to be avoided in the third and fourth feet, but are approved in the first and second, in the fourth and fifth, and in the first, third and fifth. See Virg. A. 6, 651: 1, 94: and 6, 522.

NOTE 2. In the principal cæsura of the verse poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to in order to determine the place of the cæsural pause. For in the common place for the cæsura in the third foot there is often a cæsura of the foot; while, in the fourth foot, a still more marked division occurs. In this case, the latter is to be considered as the principal cæsura, and distinguished accordingly; as,

Bellī | ferrā- | -tōs pōs- | -tes, | pōr- | -tāsquĕ rĕ- | -frēgit. Hor. S. 1, 4, 61.

II. The *Priapēan* is usually accounted a species of hexameter. It is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each, having generally a trochee in the first and fourth place, but often a spondee and rarely a dactyl; in the second, usually a dactyl; and an amphimacer and more rarely a dactyl in the third; as,

Ō co- | -loniă | quæ cupis | ponte | ludere | longo. Catull. 17, 1.

It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of alternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V. Thus,

Ō cŏ- | -lônĩă, quæ | cŭpis Pōntě | lūděrě lôn- | -go.

Note. A regular hexameter verse is termed *Priapēan*, when it is so constructed as to be divisable into two portions of three feet each; as,

Tērtīā | pārs pā- | -trī dātā || pārs dātā | tērtīā | mātrī. Catull. 62, 64. See above, 6.

§ 311. III. A pentameter verse consists of five feet.

REMARK 1. It is generally, however, divided, in scanning, into two hemistichs, the first consisting of two feet, either dactyls or spondees, followed by a long syllable; the last, of two dactyls, also followed by a long syllable; as,

Nātū- | -ræ sĕquĭ- | -tūr || sēmĭnă | qūisquĕ sŭ- | -æ. Prop.~3,~7,~20. Cārmĭnĭ- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēmpŭs ĭn | ōmnĕ mĕ- | -īs. Ovid.

1. According to the more ancient and correct mode of scanning pentameter verse, it consists of five feet, of which the first and second may each be a dactyl or a spondee; the third is always a spondee; and the fourth and fifth are anapæsts; as,

Nătū- | -ræ sĕquĭ- | -tūr || sēm- | -ĭnă quīs- | -quĕ sŭæ. Cārmĭnĭ- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēm- | -pŭs in ōm- | -nĕ mĕīs.

- 2. The cæsura, in pentameter verse, always occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. at the close of the first hemistich. It very rarely lengthens a short syllable.
- 3. The pentameter rarely ends with a word of three syllables. In Ovid, it usually ends with a dissyllable.
- REM. 2. This species of verse is seldom used, except in connection with hexameter, a line of each recurring alternately. This combination is called *elegiac* verse. Thus,

Flēbīlīs īndīgnōs, Elēgēīā, sōlvē capīllos.

Ah nīmīs ēx vērō nūnc tībī nōmēn ĕrit! Ovid, Am. 3, 9, 3.

§ 312. IV. The tetrameter a priore, or Alcmanian dactylic tetrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl; as,

Garrula | pēr ra- | -mos, avis | obstrepit. Sen. Ced. 454.

V. The tetrameter a posteriore, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter; as,

Ībimus, | O soci- | -ī, comi- | -tesque. Hor. Od. 1, 7, 26.

REMARK. The penultimate foot in this, as in hexameter verse, may be a spondee, but in this case the preceding foot should be a dactyl; as,

Mēnsō- | -rēm cŏhĭ- | -bēnt Ar- | -chỹtā. Hor. Od. 1, 28, 2.

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

Grātō | Pyrrha sub | antro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.

REMARK. But this kind of verse is more properly included in choriambic metre. See § 316, V.

VII. The trimeter catalectic Archilochian consists of the first five half feet of a hexameter, but the first and second feet are commonly dactyls; as,

Pūlvīs ět | ūmbră sŭ- | -mus. Hor. Od. 4, 7, 16.

VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

Rīsīt A- | -pollo. Hor. Od. 1, 10, 12.

IX. The *Æolic pentameter* consists of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a trochee, or an iambus. Thus



X. The Phalacian pentameter consists of a dactylic penthimimeris and a dactylic dimeter; as,

Vīsē- | -bāt gĕlĭ- | -dæ || sīdĕră | brūmæ. Boëthius.

REMARK. A trochee is sometimes found in the first place and an iambus in the first and second places.

XI. The *Tetrameter Meiurus*, or *Faluscan* consists of the last four feet of a hexameter, except that the last foot is an iambus instead of a spondee; as,

Ut novă | fruge gra- | -vis Ceres | eat. Boethius.

XII. The Tetrameter Catalectic consists of the tetrameter a priore wanting the latter half of the concluding dactyl; as,

Omne homi- | -num genus | in ter- | -ris. Boethius.

ANAPÆSTIC METRE.

§ 313. I. The anapæstic monoměter consists of two anapæsts; as,

Ululas- | -se canes Sen.

II. The anapæstic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapæsts; as,

Pharetræ- | -que graves | date sæ- | -va fero Sen.

REMARK 1. The first foot in each measure of anapæstic metre was very often changed to a dactyl or a spondee, and the second foot often to a spondee, and, in a few instances, to a dactyl.

Rem. 2. Anapæstic verses are generally so constructed that each measure ends with a word, so that they may be written and read in lines of one, two, or more measures.

IAMBIC METRE.

§ 314. I. 1. The *iambic trimeter*, or senarius, consists of three iambic measures, or six iambic feet; as,

Phase- | -lus îl- [-le, || quem | vide- [-tis hos- | -pites.... Catull. 4. 1.

- 2. The exsura commonly occurs in the third but sometimes in the fourth foot.
- 3. The pure iambic measure was seldom used by the Latin poets, but to vary the rhythm spondees were introduced into the first, third, and fifth places. In every foot, also, except the last, which was always an iambus, a long syllable was often changed into two short ones, so that an anapæst or a dactyl was used for a spondee, and a tribrach for an iambus, but the use of the dactyl in the fifth place was very rare; as,

Quō, quō | scĕlēs- | -tī ruǐ- | -tĭs? āut | cūr dēx- | -tĕrīs.... Hor. Epod. 7, 1. Ālitǐ- | -bus āt- | -quĕ cănĭ- | -bus hŏmĭ- | -cīdam Hēc- | -tŏrēm.... Id. Epod. 17, 12.

- 4. Sometimes, also, a proceleusmatic, or double pyrrhic, was used in the first place for a spondee. The writers of comedy, satire, and fable, admitted the spondee and its equivalents (the dactyl and anapæst) into the second and fourth places, as well as the first, third, and fifth.
 - 5. The following, therefore, is the scale of the Iambic Trimeter:-

1	2	3	4	5	6
<u> </u>	○ −	U	<u> </u>	\ \ \ -	\sim $-$
$\overline{}$			-		
		-		$(- \smile \smile)$	
<u> </u>		~ ~ -		\sim \sim $-$	

6. In the construction of the Iambic Trimeter an accent should fall on the second syllable of either the third foot or both the second and fourth feet; as,

Ibīs | Lībūr- | -nīs in- | tĕr āl- | -tă nā- | -vĭum | . Utrūm- | -nĕ jús- | -sī pēr- | -sĕquē'- | -mŭr ō- | -tĭum. |

II. The scazon, or choliambus (lame iambic), is the iambic trimeter, with a spondee in the sixth foot, and generally an iambus in the fifth; as,

Căr în | theā- | -trum, Cáto | seve- | -re, ve- | -nīstī? An ĭde- | ŏ tīn- | -tum ven- | -erās, | ŭt ex- | -īres? Mart. Ep. 1, 1, 3.

This species of verse is also called Hipponactic trimeter, from its inventor, Hipponax.

III. The *iambic tetrameter* or *quadrātus*, called also from the number of its feet *octonarius*, a measure used by the comic poets, consists of four iambic measures, subject to the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Nunc hie | dies | ăliam | vitam af- || -fert, ăli- | -os mo- | -res pos- | -tulat. Ter. A. 1,2, 18.

REMARK. The cæsura regularly follows the second measure.

IV. The *iambic tetrameter catalectic* or *Hipponactic*, is the iambic tetrameter, wanting the last syllable, and having always an iambus in the seventh place, but admitting in the other places the same variations as the trimeter and tetrameter; as,

Dēprēn- | -să nā- | -vis īn | mărī, | vēsā- | -niēn- | -tĕ vēn- | -to. Catuli. 25, 13.

V. The *iambic trimeter catalectic* or *Archilochian*, is the iambic trimeter (I.), wanting the final syllable. Like the common iambic trimeter, it admits a spondee into the first and third places, but not into the fifth; as,

Vŏcā- | -tŭs āt- | -quĕ nōn | vŏcā- | -tŭs āu- | -dit. Hor. Od. 2. 18, 40. Trähūnt- | -qŭe sīc- | -cās māch- | -ĭnæ | cărī- | -nas. Id. Od. 1, 4, 2.

VI. The *iambic dimeter* consists of two iambic measures, with the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Förtī | sĕquē- | -mūr pēc- | -tŏre. Hor. Epod. 1, 14. Cānīdī- | -ā trāc- | -tāvīt | dšpēs. Id. Epod. 3, 8. Vĭdē- | -rē prŏpē- | -rāntēs | dŏmum. Id. Epod. 3, 62.

REMARK. The iambic dimeter is also called the Archilochian dimeter.

The following is its scale:-

VII. The iambic dimeter hypermeter, called also Archilochian, is the iambic dimeter, with an additional syllable at the end; as,

Rědě- | -git în | vērōs | timō- | -rēs. Hor. Od. 1, 37, 15.

REMARK. Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.

VIII. The iambic dimeter acephalous is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable; as,

Non | ĕbūr | nĕque āu- | -rĕum.... Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1.

Remark. This kind of verse is sometimes scanned as a catalectic trochaic dimeter. See \S 315, IV.

IX. The *iambic dimeter catalectic*, or *Anacreontic*, is the iambic dimeter, wanting the final syllable, and having always an iambus in the third foot; as,

Ut tī- | gris ōr- | -bă gnā- | -tīs. Sen. Med. 863.

X. The Galliambus consists of two iambic dimeters catalectic, the last of which wants the final syllable.

REMARK 1. It was so denominated from the Galli or priests of Cybele, by whom it was used.

REM. 2. In the first foot of each dimeter the anapæst was generally preferred to the spondee. The catalectic syllable at the end of the first dimeter is long, and the second foot of the second dimeter is commonly a tribrach; as,

Super al- | -ta vec- | -tus A- | -tys | celeri | rate ma- | -ria. Catull, 63, 1.

REM. 3. The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the first dimeter.

TROCHAIC METRE.

- § 315. 1. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to iambics. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure iambic verse, renders it pure trochaic, and the addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure trochaic line, renders it pure iambic, with the deficiency or redundancy of a syllable in each case at the end of the verse.
- I. The trochaic tetrameter catalectic consists of seven feet, followed by a catalectic syllable. In the first five places and very rarely in the sixth, it admits a tribrach, but in the seventh a trochee only. In the even places, besides the tribrach, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapæst, and sometimes a proceleusmatic; as,

Jūssŭs | ēst ĭn | ērmĭs | īrë : || pūrŭs | īrë | jūssŭs | ēst. $Auct.\ P.\ Vĕn.$ Rōmŭ | $l\bar{w}$ ās | īpsā | fēcīt || cūm Sá- | -bīnīs | nūptī- | -ās. Id. Dánăĭ | dēs, cō- | -ītë ; | vēstrās || hīc dī- | -ēs quæ- | -rīt mā- | -nūs. Sen.

The following is its scale:-

REMARK 1. The *pure* trochaic verse was rarely used, and the dactyl very rarely occurs in the fourth place. The cæsural pause uniformly occurs after the fourth foot, thus dividing the verse into a complete dimeter and a catalectic dimeter. The comic writers introduced the spondee and its equivalent feet into the odd places.

REM. 2. The complete trochaic tetrameter or octonarius properly consists of eight feet, all trochees, subject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

Īpsē | sūmmīs | sāxīs | fīxŭs | āspē- | -rīs, ē- | -vīscē- | -rātŭs. Enn.

II. The Sapphic verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five feet—the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a daetyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Intě- | -gūr vī- | -tæ, || scělě- | -rīsquě | pūrŭs. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 1.

- 1. Sappho, and, after her example, Catullus, sometimes made the second foot a trochec.
- 2. Those Sapphics are most harmonious which have the cæsura after the fifth semi-foot.

NOTE 1. In the composition of the Sapphic stanza, a word is sometimes divided between the end of the third Sapphic, and the beginning of the Adonic which follows; as,

Lābi- | -tūr rī- | -pā Jŏvě | non pro- | -bānte uxorius | āmnis. Hor. Od. 1, 2, 19. It has been thought by some that such lines should be considered as one Sapphic verse of seven feet, the fifth foot being either a spondee or a trochee.

Note 2. This verse is sometimes scanned as epichoriambic, having an epitrite in the first place, a choriambus in the second, and ending with an iambic sizygy catalectic; thus,

Intěgēr vī- | -tæ, scělěrīs- | -quě pūrus.

III. The Phalecian verse consists of five feet—a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,

Non est | vīvere, | sed va- | -lere | vīta. Mart.

REMARK 1. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee or an iambus. This writer also sometimes uses a spondee in the second place.

REM. 2. The *Phalacian* verse is sometimes called *hendecasyllabic*, as consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not belong to it exclusively.

IV. The trochaic dimeter catalectic consists of three feet, properly all trochees, and a catalectic syllable, but admitting also in the second place a spondee or a dactyl; as,

Non ĕ | -būr nĕ- | -que āurĕ- | -um. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1. Lēnīs | āc mŏdī- | -cūm flŭ- | -ēns Aūrā, | nēc vēr- | -gēns lā- | -tus. Sen. Œd. 887.

Note. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see § 314, VIII.), and it is not important whether it be regarded as iambic or trochaic.

CHORIAMBIC METRE.

§ **316.** (a.) In a pure choriambic verse each metre except the last is a choriambus, and the last an Iambic syzygy.

Note. A spondee and iambus, i. e. a third epitrite, are sometimes used in place of the lambic syzygy.

- (b.) An epichoriambic verse is composed of one or more choriambi with some other foot, especially a ditrochee or a second epitrite, joined with it.
- I. The choriambic pentameter consists of a spondee, three choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Tũ nẽ | quæsiĕrīs, | scīrĕ nĕfās, | quēm mihi, quēm tibī., Hor. Od. 1, 11, 1.

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of equal length, and a Bacchius; as,

Omně němůs | cům flůviis, | omně cănāt | profudum. Claud.

2. In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambus contained in the first choriambus; as,

Tē deos ō- | -rō, Sj barīn | cūr properes | amando. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 2.

- 3. Some scan this verse as an epichoriambic tetrameter catalectic, beginning with the second epitrite.
- III. 1. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepiades) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Mæc3- | -nās, ătávīs || ēdītě r3g- | -ībus. Hor. Od. 1, 1, 1.

- 2. This form is invariably observed by Horace; but other poets sometimes, though rarely, make the first foot a dactyl.
 - 3. The cæsural pause occurs at the end of the first choriambus.
- 4. This measure is sometimes scanned as a dactylic pentameter catalectic. See § 311, III. Thus,

Mæcē- | -nās, ătă- | vīs | ēdītě | rēgībus.

IV. 1. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyco), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Sīc tē | dīvă pŏtēns | Cyprī... Hor. Od. 1, 3, 1.

- 2. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, the verse might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. Thus,

 Sīc tē | dīvă pŏ- | -tēns Cýpri.
- V. 1. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrates), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,

Grătō, | Pŷrrhă, sŭb ān- | -trō. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.

- 2. The first foot was sometimes a trochee or an anapest, rarely an iambus.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, this measure might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. See § 312, VI.
- 4. The Pherecratic subjoined to the Glyconic produces the Priapean verse. See § 310, II.
- VI. 1. The choriambic dimeter consists of a choriambus and a Bacchius; as,

Lydia die | per omnes. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 1.

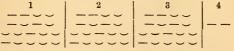
2. This verse is by some called the choriambic dimeter catalectic. Cf. § 316, (a.)

IONIC METRE.

- § 317. I. The *Ionic a majore*, or *Sotadic*, (from the poet Sotades), consists of three greater Ionics and a spondee.
- 1. The Ionic feet, however, are often changed into ditrochees, and either of the two long syllables in those feet into two short ones; as,

Hās, cūm gēmī- | -nā cōmpēdē, | dēdīcāt cā- | -tēnās, Sātūrnē, tī- | -bī Zōĭlŭs, | ānnūlōs prī- | -ōrēs. *Mart*.

2. Hence the following is its scale:-



Note. The final syllable, by § 301, note, may be short.

II. 1. The *Ionic a minore* consists generally of verses of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics; as,

Puer ales, | tibi telas, | operose- | -que Minerve... Hor. Od. 3, 12, 4.

2. In this verse, as in the anapæstic, no place is assigned to the pause; because, since the metres, if rightly constructed, end with a word, the effect of a pause will be produced at the end of each metre.

COMPOUND METRES.

- § 318. Compound metre is the union of two species of metre in the same verse.
- I. The dactylico-iambic metre or Elegiambus consists of a dactylic penthemimeris (312, VII.), followed by an iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Scrībere | vērsīcu- | -los | amo- | -re pēr- | -culsum | gravī. Hor. Epod. 11, 2.

II. The *iambico-dactylic* metre or *Iambelegus* consists of the same members as the preceding, but in a reversed order; as,

Nīvēs- | -quě dē- | -dūcūnt | Jŏvēm: || nūnc mărĕ, | nūnc sĭlŭ- | -æ. Hor. Epod. 13, 2.

NOTE. The members composing this and the preceding species of verse are often written in separate verses.

III. The greater Alcaic consists of an iambic penthemimeris, i. e. of two iambic feet and a long catalectic syllable, followed by a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Vidēs | ŭt al- | -ta | stet nive can- | -didum. Her. Od. 1, 9, 1.

REMARK 1. The first foot is often a spondee.

REM. 2. The cæsura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syllable.

Rem. 3. This verse is sometimes so scanned as to make the last two feet daetyls.

IV. The dactylico-trochaic or Archilochian heptameter, consists of the dactylic tetrameter a priore (§ 312), followed by three trochees; as.

Solvitur | acris hi- | -ems gra- | -ta vice | veris | et Fa- | -vont. Hor. Od. 1, 4, 1.

REMARK. The cæsura occurs between the two members.

V. The dactylico-trochaic tetrameter or lesser Alcaic, consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees, i. e. of a dactylic dimeter followed by a trochaic monometer; as,

Lēvīā | pērsonu- | -ēre | sāxā. Hor. Od. 1, 17, 12.

COMBINATION OF VERSES IN POEMS.

- § 319. 1. A poem may consist either of one kind of verse only or of a combination of two or more kinds.
- 2. A poem in which only one kind of verse is employed, is called *carmen monocōlon*; that which has two kinds, *dicōlon*; that which has three kinds, *tricōlon*.
- 3. When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called distrophon; when after the third line, tristrophon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrophon.
- 4. The several verses which occur before the poem returns to the kind of verse with which it began, constitute a *stanza* or *strophe*.
- 5. A poem consisting of two kinds of verse, when the stanza contains two verses, is called $dic\bar{o}lon\ distr\bar{o}phon_1$ (see § 320, 3); when it contains three, $dic\bar{o}$ -

lon tristrophon, (Auson. Profess. 21); when four, dicolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 2); and when five, dicolon pentastrophon.

6. A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called tricolon tristrophon, (§ 320, 15); when four, tricolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 1).

HORATIAN METRES.

§ 320. The different species of metre used by Horace in his lyric compositions are twenty. The various forms in which he has employed them, either separate or in conjunction, are nineteen, arranged, according to the order of preference given to them by the poet, in the following

SYNOPSIS.

1. Two greater Alcaics (§ 318, 111.), one Archilochian iambic dimeter hypermeter (§ 314, VII.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, V.); as,

Vidēs, ŭt āltā stēt nivě candidum Sorācte, nēc jām sūstīneānt onus Sīlvæ laborantes, geluque Flümină constiterint ăcuto.

(Lib. 1, 9.)

REMARK. This is called the Horatian stanza, because it seems to have been a favorite with Horace, being used in thirty-seven of his odes.

2. Three Sapphies (§ 315, II.) and one Adonic (§ 312, VIII.); as,

Jām sătīs tērrīs nīvīs ātquē dīræ Grandīnīs mīsīt pátēr, ēt, rūbēntě Dēxtěrā sācrās jácŭlātŭs ārces, Tērrŭīt ūrbem.

(Lib. 1, 2.)

3. One Glyconic (§ 316, IV.) and one Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.); as, Sīc tā Dīvă pötēns Cypri,

Sic fratres Helenæ, lucida sidera... (Lib. 1, 3.)

4. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, 1.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

> Ibīs Lībūrnīs īnter ālta nāvium, Amīcě, propugnācula.

(Epod. 1.)

5. Three Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.) and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

Scrībērīs Văriō fortīs, et hostīum Victor, Mæonii carminis aliti, Quam rem cumque ferox navibus aut equis Mīlēs, tē dăcē, gēssērit.

(Lib. 1, 6.)

6. Two Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.), one Pherecratic (§ 316, v.), and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

> Diānām, teneræ, dicite virgines: Intonsam, paerī, dīcīte Cynthium, Latonamque supremo Dilectam penitus Jovi.

(Lib. 1, 21.)

7. The Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.) alone; as,

Mæcenās atavīs edīte regibus.

(Lit 1, 1.)

8. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriore (§ 312, v.); as,

> Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen, Aut Ephësum, bimarisve Corinthi ... (Lib. 1, 7.)

9. The choriambic pentameter (§ 316, 1.) alone; as, Tũ nẽ quæsiĕrīs, scīrĕ nĕfās, quēm mihi, quēm tibi... (Lib. 1, 11.)

10. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Nox ĕrăt, ēt cœlo fulgēbāt lūnă sĕrēno Inter minora sidera.

(Epod 15.)

11. The iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) containing spondees; as, Jām, jam ēff icācī do manus scientiæ.

12. One choriambic dimeter (§ 316, VI.) and one choriambic tetrameter (§ 316, II.) with a variation; as,

> Lydia, dic, per omnes Tē Dēōs ōrō, Sybarın cur properas amando... (Lib. 1, 8.)

13. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one iambic trimeter without spondees (§ 314, I.); as,

> Altera jam teritur bellis cīvilibus ætas; Sŭīs et īpsā Romā vīrībūs ruit.

(Epōd. 16.) 14. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Dīff ūgērē nīvēs: rēdēunt jām grāmīna campīs,

Ārbörībūsquē comæ.

(Lib. 4, 7.)

15. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, 1.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§ 312, VII.), and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

> Pēttī, nīhīl mē, sīcut antea, juvat Scrībere vērsīculos, Amōrĕ pērcālsūm grāvi.

(Epoa. 11.)

Note. The second and third lines are often written as one verse. See ◊ 318, 1.

16. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.), one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.), and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

> Hörrida tempestas colam contraxit; et imbres Nīvēsque dēdācānt Jōvem: Nānc māre, nānc sīluæ...

(Epod. 13.)

Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, II.

17. One Archilochian heptameter (§ 318, IV.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, v.); as,

> Solvităr ācris hiems grātā vice vēris ēt Pávoni, Trahuntque siccas machinæ carinas. (Lib. 1, 4.)

18. One iambic dimeter acephalous (§ 314, VIII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, v.); as,

> Non ěbir něque aurěum Měä rěnīdět în domo lácunar. (Lib. 2, 18.)

19. The Ionic a minore (§ 317, 11.) alone; as, Miserarum est neque amorī dare lūdam, neque dalci... (Lib. 3, 12.)

§ 321. A METRICAL KEY TO THE ODES OF HORACE.

Containing, in alphabetic order, the first words of each, with a reference to the numbers in the preceding Synopsis, where the metre is explained.

Æli, vetustoNo. 1	Mollis inertia
Æquam memento 1	Montium custos 2
Albi, ne doleas 5	Motum ex Metello 1
Altěra jam teritur13	Musis amīcus 1
Augustam, amīce	Natis in usum
At, O deōrum 4	Ne forte credas
Audivēre, Lyce	Ne sit ancillæ 2
Bacchum in remotis	Nolis longa feræ 5
Beātus ille 4	Nondum subacta
Cœlo supīnas1	Non ebur neque aureum18
Cœlo tonantem1	Non semper imbres1
Cur me querēlis 1	Non usitātâ1
Delicta majorum 1	Non vides, quanto
Descende cœlo	Nox erat
Diānam, tenèræ	Nullam, Vare, sacrâ9
Diffugēre nives14	Nullus argento
Dive, quem proles 2	Nunc est bibendum 1
Divis orte bonis	O crudēlis adhuc 9
Donārem patěras 7	O diva, gratum 1
Donec gratus eram tibi 3	O fons Bandusiæ 6
Eheu! fugāces 1	O matre pulchrā1
Est mihi nonum 2	O nata mecum 1
Et ture et fidĭbus 3	O navis, referent 6
Exēgi monumentum 7	O sæpe mecum 1
Extremum Tanaim 5	O Venus, regina 2
Faune, nymphārum 2	Odi prof anum 1
Festo quid potius die 3	Otium Divos 2
Hercŭlis ritu 2	Parcius junctas 2
Horrida tempestas	Parcus Deōrnm 1
Ibis Liburnis 4	Parentis olim 4
Icci, beātis 1	Pastor quum trahèret 5
Ille et nefasto 1	Percicos odi, puer 2
Impios parræ 2	Petti, nihil me
Inclūsam Danăën 5	Phœbe, silvarumque 2
Intactis opulentior	Phæbus volentem 1
Integer vitæ 2	Pindărum quisquis 2
Intermissa, Venus, diu 3	Poscimur: si quid 2
Jam jam efficāci11	Quæ cura Patrum 1
Jam pauca arātro 1	Qualem ministrum 1
Jam satis terris	Quando repostum 4
Jam veris comites 5	Quantum distet ab Inacho 3
Justum et tenācem	Quem tn, Melpoměne 3
Laudābunt alii	Quem virum aut heroa 2
Lupis et agnis 4	Quid bellicosus1
Lydia, dic, per omnes12	Quid dedicatum 1
Mæcēnas atāvis	Quid fles, Asterie
Malā solūta 4	Quid immerentes 4
Martiis cælebs	Quid obserātis
Mater sæva Cupidĭnum 3	Quid tibi vis
Mercŭri, facunde 2	Quis desiderio
	Quis multa gracilis
Mercŭri, nam te	
Miserārum est19	Quo me, Bacche 8

360 PROSODY.—VERSIFICATION—HORATIAN METRES. § 321.

Quo, quo, scelesti ruitis No. 4	Tu ne guæsiĕrisNo. 9
Quum tu, Lydia 3	Tyrrhēna regum 1
Rectius vives 2	Ulla si juris 2
Rogāre longo 4	Uxor paupěris Ibýci 3
Scribēris Vario 5	Velox amænum 1
Septimi, Gades 2	Vides, ut altā 1
Sic te Diva potens 3	Vile potābis 2
Solvitur acris hiems	Vitas hinnuleo 6
Te maris et terræ 8	Vixi puellis

The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz:-

- 1. Dactylic Hexameter.
- Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriōri.
 Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.
- Adonic.
 Trimeter Iambic.
- 6. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.
- 7. Iambic Dimeter.
- 8. Archilochian Iambic Dimeter Hypermeter.
- 9. Iambic Dimeter Acephalous.
- 10. Sapplic.

- 11. Choriambic Pentameter.
- 12. Choriambic Tetrameter.
- 13. Asclepiadic Tetrameter.
- 14. Glyconic.15. Pherecratic.
- 16. Choriambic Dimeter.
- 17. Ionic a minore.
- 18. Greater Alcaic.19. Archilochian Heptameter.20. Lesser Alcaic.

APPENDIX.

GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

§ 322. Certain deviations from the regular form and construction of words, are called *grammatical figures*. These may relate either to Orthography and Etymology, or to Syntax.

I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

These are distinguished by the general name of metaplasm.

- 1. Prosthësis is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnātus, for nātus; tētūli, for tūli. These, however, are rather the ancient customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphæresis.
- 2. Aphærěsis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'st, for est; rābōnem, for arrăbōnem.
- 3. Epenthésis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, althum, for althum; Māvors, for Mars.
- 4. Syncope is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, deûm, for deōrum; meûm factûm, for meōrum factūrum; sæcla, for sæcūla; flesti, for flēvisti; rēpostus, for rēpositus; aspris, for aspēris.
- 5. Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, cōgo, for cŏăgo; nīl, for nīhīl.
- 6. Paragoge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.
- 7. Apocope is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, men', for mêne; Antôni, for Antônii.
- 8. Antithesis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi; optimus, for optimus; afficio, for adficio. O is often thus used for u, especially after v; as, voltus, for vultus; servom, for servum. So after qu; as, $\alpha quom$, for $\alpha quum$.
- 9. Metathësis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

- 323. The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enalläge, and hyperbäton.
- 1. (a.) Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence; as,
- Aiunt, seil. homines. Dārīus Hystaspis, seil. fīlius. Căno, seil. ego. Quid multa? seil. dīcam. Ex quo, seil. tempore. Fērina, seil. caro.
 - (b.) Ellipsis includes asyndeton, zeugma, syllepsis, and prolepsis.
- (1.) Asyndéton is the omission of the copulative conjunction; as, ábiit, excessit, êvāsit, êrūpit scil. et. Cic. This is called in pure Latin dissolūtio.

- (2.) (a.) Zeugma is the uniting of two nouns or two infinitives to a verb, which, as to its meaning, is applicable to only one of them; as, Pācem an bellum yērens: (Sall.) where yērens is applicable to bellum only, while pācem requires ăgēre. Semperne in sanyāne, ferro, fūgā versābīmur? (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.
- (b.) Nego is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Negant Casărem mansūrum, postălātăque interposita esse, for dicuntque postăkāta... Cic. See § 209, Note 4.
- (c.) When an adjective or verb, referring to two or more nouns, agrees with one, and is understood with the rest, the construction is also sometimes called zeugma, but more commonly syllepsis; as, Et genus, et virtus, nisi cum re, yilior alga est. Hor. Caper tibi salvus et hædi. Virg. Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tu candida esses. Id.
- (3.) Syllepsis is when an adjective or verb, belonging to two or more nouns of different genders, persons, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as, Attoniti novitate pavent Baucis, timidusque Philimon. Ovid. Procumbit uterque pronus humi, i. e. Deucalion et Pyrrha. Id. Sustulimus manus et ego et Balbus. Cic. So, Ipse cum fratre adesse jussi sumus. Id. Projectisque amiculo et litéris. Curt. See §§ 205, R. 2, and 209, R. 12, (3.) and (7.)
- (4.) Prölepsis is when the parts, differing in number or person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or adjective not being repeated; as, Principes utrinque pugnam cirbant, ab Sábinis Mettius Curtius, ab Rōmānis Hostus Hostīlius. Liv. Bōni quŏniam convenimus ambo, tu câlāmos inflāre, ēgo dīcēre versus. Virg.
- 2. (a.) Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning; as,
- Sic ore locuta est. Virg. Qui măgis vere vincere quam diu imperare mălit. Liv. Nemo unus. Cic. Forte fortună. Id. Prudens sciens. Ter.
- (b.) Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysynděton, hendiădys, and periphrăsis.
- (1.) Părelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, ĕgŏmet, ăgĕdum, fortassean. Such additions, however, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
- (2.) Põlysyndeton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Una Eurusque Nõtusque ruunt creberque procellis Africus. Virg.
- (3.) Hendiādys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by et, -que, or alque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Pātēris lībāmus et auro, for aureis pātēris. Virg. Libro et silvestri sūbēre clausam, for libro sūbēris. Id. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. 3, 32.
- (4.) Pěriphrăsis or circumlöcütio is a circuitous mode of expression; as, Těněri fætus övium, i. e. agni. Virg.
- 3. (a.) Enalläge is a change of words, or a substitution of one gender, number, case, person, tense, mood, or voice of the same word for another.
- (b.) Enallăge includes antimeria, heterosis, antiptosis, syněsis, and anacolūthon.
- (1.) Antiměria is the use of one part of speech for another, or the abstract for the concrete; as, Nostrum istud vīvěre triste, for nostra vīta. Pers. Aliud cras. Id. Conjūgium vīdēbit? for conjūgem. Virg.
- (2.) Heterosis is the use of one form of noun, pronoun, verb, etc., for another; Ego quoque una pereo, quod mihi est carius, for qui mihi sum carior. Ter.

Romanus prælio victor, for Romani victores. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular; as, colla, corda, ora, etc. See § 98. Me truncus illapsus cerebro sustălerat, for sustălisset. Hor. See § 259, R. 4.

- (3.) Antiptōsis is the use of one case for another; as, Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo, for Iūlus. Virg. \ 204, R. 8. Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis, for te esse uxo-
- rem. Hor. § 210, R. 6.
- (4.) Syněsis, or synthěsis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, rather than to its gender or number; as, Sübeunt Tēgœa jüventus auxilio tardi. Stat. Concursus populi mīrantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in crūcem acti. Sall. Ubi illic est scēlus, qui me perdidit? Ter. Id mea mīnime rēfert, qui sum nātu maximus. Id. See § 205, R. 3, (1.) and (3.), and § 206, (12.)
- (5.) Anacolathon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and former part of a sentence; as, Num nos omnes, quibus est álicunde áliquis objectus labos, omne quod est intérea tempus, priusquam ul rescitum est, lucro est. Ter. In this example, the writer began as if he intended to say lucro hábémus, and ended as if he had said nöbis omnibus, leaving nos omnes without its verb.
- 4. (a.) Hyperbaton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.
- (b.) Hyperbaton includes anastrophe, hysteron proteron, hypallage, synchysis, tmēsis, and părenthesis.
- (1.) Anastrophe is an inversion of the order of two words; as, Transtra per et rēmos, for per transtra. Virg. Collo dăre brāchia circum, for circumdăre. Îd. Nox ĕrit una super, for superett. Ovid. Et făcit are, for arēfacit. Lucr.
- (2.) Hysteron proteron is reversing the natural order of the sense; as, Moriamur, et in mědia arma ruāmus. Virg. Vălet atque vīvit. Ter.
- (3.) Hýpalláge is an interchange of constructions; as, In nova fert animus mūtātas dicere formas corpora, for corpora mūtāta in novas formas. Ovid. Dure classibus Austros, for dăre classes Austris. Virg.
- (4.) Synchýsis is a confused position of words; as, Saxa věcant Itáli, mědiis quæ in fluctibus, āras, for quæ saxa in mědiis fluctibus, Itáli věcant āras. Virg.
- (5.) Tmēsis or diacope is the separation of the parts of a compound word; as, Septem subjecta trioni gens, for septentrioni. Virg. Quæ me cumque vocant terræ. Id. Per mihi, per, inquam, grātum fēceris. Cic.
- (6.) Părenthësis or dialysis is the insertion of a word or words in a sentence interrupting the natural connection; as, Tityre dum redeo, (brevis est via,) pasce căpellas. Virg.

REMARK. To the above may be added archaism and Hellenism, which belong both to the figures of etymology and to those of syntax.

- (1.) Archaism is the use of ancient forms or constructions; as, aulāt, for aulæ; sēnāti, for sēnātis; fuat, for sit; prolitbesso, for prolitbeiro; impetrassēre, for impetrātūrum esse; fārier, for fāri; nēnu, for non; endo, for in;—Opēram ābūtitur, for opērā. Ter. Quid tibi hanc cārātio est rem? Plaut.
- (2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Hěléne, for Hěléna; Antiphon, for Antipho; aurās (gen.), for auræ; Pallados, Pallada, for Palladis, Palladem; Trōadas, Trōadas, for Trōadibus, Trōades;—Abstinēto īrārum. Hor. Tempus desistere pugnæ. Virg.
- (1.) To the grammatical figures may not improperly be subjoined certain others, which are often referred to in philological works, and which are called

TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

(2.) A rhetorical figure is a mode of expression different from the direct and simple way of expressing the same sense. The turning of a word from its original and customary meaning, is called a trope.

- 1. (a.) A metaphor is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another, to which that object has some analogy; as, Ridet äyer, The field smiles. Virg. Ætas aurea, The golden age Ovid. Naufrägia förtüme, The wreck of fortune. Cic. Mentis ocüli, The eyes of the mind. Id. Virtus änimum glöriæ stimülis concitat. The harshness of a metaphor is often softened by means of quaisi, tanquam, quidam, or ut ita dicam; as, In ūnū philosophiā quāsi tābernāculum vitæ suæ collòcārunt. Id. Opīmum quoddam et tamquam ādīpātæ dictionis gēnus. Id.
- (b.) Cătachrēsis or ăbūsio is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir grēgis ipse căper. Virg. Eurus per Sicülas equitâvit undas. Hor.
- 2. Metonymy is substituting the name of an object for that of another to which it has a certain relation; as the cause for the effect, the container for what is contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their contraries; the parts of the body for certain affections; the possessor for the thing possessor is place and time for the persons or things which they comprise, etc.; as, Mortāles, for hömines. Virg. Amor dāri Martis, i. ebelli Id. Frūges Cererem appellāmus, vinum autem Librum. Cic. Cūpio vigiliam mean tibi trādēre, i. e. meam cūram. Id. Pallīda mors. Hor. Hausit pātēram, i. e. vinum. Virg. Vīna coronant, i. e. pātēram. Id. Necte ternos colores i. e. to it fila diversi coloris. Id. Cēdant arma togæ, i. e. bellum pāci. Cic. Sæcūla mītescent, i. e. homīnes in sæcūlis. Virg. Vīvat Pācūvius vel Nestora tōtum. Juv. Doctrīnā Græcia nos sūpērābat, for Græci sūpērābant. Cic. Pāgi centum Suevērum ad rīpas Rhēni consēdērant, for pāgorum incola. Cæs. Tempora āmīcōrum, for res adversæ. Cic. Claudius lēge prædiūtōriā vēnālis pēpendīt, for Claudii predium. Suet. Vīci ad Jānum mēdium sēdentes, for Jāni vircum. Cic.
- 3. Sỹnecdoche is putting a whole for a part, a genus for a species, a singular for a plural, and their contraries; also the material for the thing made of it; a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, Fontem fĕrēbant. Id. Tectum, for domus. Id. Armāto mīlte complent, for armātis mīltiubus. Id. Ferrum, for glādus. Id. Qui Corinthiis öpērībus ābundant, i. e. vāsis. Cic. Urbem, urbem, mi Rāfe, cole, i. e. Rōmam. Cic. Centum puer artium, i. e. multārum.
- 4. Irony is the intentional use of words which express a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker means to convey; as, Salve bone vir, carasti probe. Ter. Egrégiam $v\bar{e}ro$ laudem, et spolia ampla $r\bar{e}fertis$, $t\bar{u}que$, puerque tuus. Virg.
- 5. Hyperböle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth; as, Ipse arduus, altaque pulsat sidera. Virg. Ocior Euro. Id.
- 6. Métalepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post aliquot aristas. Virg. Here aristas is put for messes, and this for annos.
- 7. (a.) Allegory is a consistent series of metaphors, designed to illustrate one subject by another; as, O nāvis, rěfèrent in măre te nôvi fluctus. Hor.
- (b.) An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma; as, Dic, quibus in terris tres pateat call spatium non amplius ulnas. Virg.
- 8. Antónomásia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subito, qui módo Croesus érat, for pauper and dires. Ovid. So, by periphrasis, pôtor Rhôdômi, for Gallus. Hor. Eversor Carthaginis, for Scipio. Quint. Elòquentiæ princeps, for Cicero. Id. Tydīdes, for Diòmedes. Virg.
- 9. Litites is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innoxia verba. Virg.
- 10. Antiphrăsis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning; as, Auri sacra fâmes. Virg.
- 11. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Clesări, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
- 12. Antănaclăsis or punning is the use of the same word in different senses; as, Quis neget Ænōæ nātum de stirpe Nerōnem? Sustulit hic mātrem, sustulit ille patrem. Epigr. Amāri jucundum est, si cūrētur ne quid insit ămāri. Cic.

- 13. Anāphōra or ēpānāphōra is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses; as, Nihilne te nocturnum presīdium pālātii, nihil urbis ciyilim, nihil timor pōpāli, etc. Cic. Te, dukis conjux, te, sōlo in lītore sēcum, te, vēmente die, te, dēcēdente, cānēbat. Virg.
- 14. Epistrophe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Pænos popaius Romānus justitiā vieit, armis vieit, lībērālitāte vieit. Cic. In pure Latin this figure is called conversio.
- 15. Symplöce is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses, and hence it includes the anaphöra and the epistrophe; as, Quis legem talit? Rullus: Quis mājorem popāli partem suffrāgiis privavit? Rullus: Quis comitiis prvefuit? Idem Rullus. Cic.
- 16. Epănălepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after intervening words or clauses. See Virg. Geor. II. 4—7.
- 17. Anădiplosis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Sēquītur pulcherrimus Astur Astur ēquo fidens. Ving. A. 10, 180. Nunc ētiam audes in hōrum conspectum vēnīre, vēnīre audes in hōrum conspectum? Cic. This is sometimes called ēpānastrophe.
- 18. Epănădiplāsis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of a sentence; as, Crescit ămor nummi, quantum ipsa pěcūnia crescit. Juv.
- 19. Epănădos or regressio is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order; as, Crūdēlis māter māgis, an puer improbus ille? Improbus ille puer, crūdēlis tu quoque, māter. Virg.
- 20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excitate, excitate eum ab inféris. Cic. Ah Corydon, Corydon, quæ te dêmentia cépit? Virg. Ibimus, ibimus, utcumque præcēdes. Hor.
- 21. Climax is a gradual amplification by means of a continued anadiplosis, each successive clause beginning with the conclusion of that which precedes it; as, Quæ reliqua spes manet libertatis, si illis et quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, audent; et quod audent, vobis molestum non est? Cic. This, in pure Latin, is called gradatio.
- 22. Încrêmentum is an amplification without a strict climax; as, Făcinus est, vineîri civem Rômânum; scélus, verbêrâri; prôpe parricidium, nécâri; quid dicam in crücem tolli? Cic.
- 23. Pōlyptōton is the repetition of a word in different cases, genders, numbers, tenses, etc.; as, Jam clipeus clipeis, umbōne rēpellitur umbo; ense minax ensis, pēde pes, et cuspide cuspis. Stat.
- 24. Paregměnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; as, Abesse non pôtest, quin ějusdem hőminis sit, qui improbos probet, probos improbare. Cic. Istam pugnam pugnabo. Plaut.
- 25. Părönömăsia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound; as, Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus. Plaut. Cīvem bönārum artium, bönārum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt āmentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agnōminātio.
- 26. Homwopropheron or alliteration is the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter; as, O Tite, tüte Tati, tübi tanta, tğranne, tülisti. Enn. Neu patriw välidas in viscera vertite vīres. Virg.
- 27. Antithėsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Hūjus ōrātionis difficilius est exitum quam principium invēntre. Cic. Casar beneficiis ac mūnificentiā maynus hābēbātur; integritāte vītæ Cato. Sall.
- 28. Oxymoron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Quum tacent, clamant. Cic.
- 29. Sỹnănỹmia is the use of different words or expressions having the same import; as, Non făram, non pătiar, non sinam. Cic. Prômitto, recipio, sponde. 1d.

- 30. Părăbola or Simile is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Rēpente te, tamquam serpens e lătibulis, oculis ēminentibus, inflato collo, tumidis cervicibus, intulisti. Cic.
- 31. Erōtēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as, Crēdītis āvectos hostes? Virg. Heu! quæ me æquŏra possunt accipĕre? Id.
- 32. Epănorthôsis or Correctio is the recalling of a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead; as, Filium ūnīcum ădôlescentūlum hābeo: ah! quid dixi? me hābēre? Imo hābui. Ter.
- 33. Apŏsiōpēsis, Rěticentia, or Interruptio, is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ĕgo—sed mōtos vræstat compōnère fluctus. Virg.
- 34. Prosopopaia or personification represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Qua (patria) tēcum, Catilina, sic ăgit. Cic. Virtus sūmit aut ponit sècures. Hor.
- 35. Apostróphe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi pötitur; quid non mortālia pectóra cōgis, auri sacra fămes! Virg.
- 36. Părăleipsis is a pretended omission of something, in order to render it more observed. See Cic. Cat. 1, 6, 14.
- 37. Epiphönēma or Acclāmātio is an exclamation or grave reflection on something said before; as, Tantæ mölis ĕrat Rōmānam condĕre gentem. Virg.
- 38. Ecphönēsis or Exclāmātio shows some violent emotion of the mind; as, O tempŏra! O mōres!
- 39. Apŏria, Diŏpŏrēsis, or Dŭbitātio, expresses a doubt in regard to what is to be said or done; as, Quos accēdam, aut quos appellem? Sall.
- 40. Prŏlepsis is the anticipation of an objection before it is made, or of an event before it occurs; as, Vērum anceps pugnæ fuĕrat fortūna. Fuisset: ¿inem mětui mŏrĭtūra? Virg.
- § 325. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style:—
- 1. Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules of orthography, etymology, or prosody; as, rigōrōsus, for rigidus or sēvērus; domminus, for dominus; davi, for dēdi.
- 2. Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Venus pulcher; vos invidenus.
- 3. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsequently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constabilarius, a constable.
- 4. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam vos aciem, et prælia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
- Amphibölia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, a Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, Æacida, Romanos vincere posse. Quint.
- 6. Idiotism is a construction peculiar to one or more languages: thus, the ablative after comparatives is a Latinism. When a peculiarity of one language is imitated in another, this is also called *idiotism*. Thus, Mitte mili verbum, instead of Fac me certiorem, is an Anglicism.

ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING.

I. OF TIME.

1. The Roman Day.

- § **326.** (1.) With the Romans, as with us, the day was either civil or natural. Their civil day, like ours, extended from midnight to midnight. The natural day continued from sunrise to sunset, as, on the other hand, the night extended from sunset to sunrise. The natural day and night were each divided into twelve equal parts or hours, which were consequently of different length, according to the varying length of the days and nights in the successive seasons of the year. It was only at the equinox that the diurnal and nocturnal hours of the Romans were equal to each other, as each was then equal to the twenty-fourth part of the civil day.
- (2.) In the Roman camp the night was further divided into four watches (vigiliae), consisting each of three Roman hours, the second and fourth watches ending respectively at midnight and at sunrise.

2. The Roman Month and Year.

(1.) The calendar of the Romans, as rectified by Julius Cæsar, agreed with our own in the number of months, and of the days in each, according to the following table:—

 Jānuārius . 31 days.
 Maius . . 31 days.
 September 30 days.

 Februārius 28 or 29.
 Jūnius . . 30 " Octōber . . 31 " November 30 " Aprīlis . . . 30 " Sextīlis . 31 " Děcember 31 "

In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names Quintilis, Sextilis, September, etc., indicated the distance of those months from the commencement of the year. Quintilis and Sextilis were afterwards called $J\bar{u}lius$ and Augustus in honor of the first two emperors. The Romans, instead of reckoning in an uninterrupted series from the first to the last day of a month, had in each month three points or periods from which their days were counted—the Calends, the Nones, and the Ides. The Calends $(C\bar{u}lende)$, were always the first day of the month. The Nones $(N\bar{v}ne)$, were the fifth, and the Ides (Idus), the thirteenth; except in March, May, July, and October, when the Nones occurred on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

(2.) They always counted forward, from the day whose date was to be determined, to the next Calends, Nones, or Ides, and designated the day by its distance before such point. After the first day of the month, therefore, they began to reckon so many days before the Nones; after the Nones, so many days before the Ides; and after the Ides, so many before the Calends, of the next month.

Thus, the second of January was denoted by quarto Nonas Januarias, or Jānuārii, scil. die ante: the third, tertio Nonas; the fourth, pridie Nonas; and the fifth, Nonis. The sixth was denoted by octavo Idus; the seventh,

septimo Idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the Ides fell. The fourteenth was denoted by undēvīgēsīmo Călendas Februārias, or Februārii; and so on to the end of the month.

- (3.) The day preceding the Calends, Nones, and Ides, was termed pridie Calendas, etc., scil. ante: in designating the other days, both the day of the Calends, etc., and that whose date was to be determined, were reckoned; hence the second day before the Calends, etc., was called tertio, the third quarto, etc.
- (4.) To reduce the Roman calendar to our own, therefore, when the day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, it is necessary to take one from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Nones or the Ides, and to subtract the remainder from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fell in the given month.

Thus, to determine the day equivalent to IV. Nonas Jānuārias, we take I from 4, and subtract the remainder, 3, from 5, the day on which the Nones of January fell (i. e. 4—1=3, and 5—3=2): this gives 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. So VI. Idus Aprilis: the Ides of April falling upon the 13th, we take (6—1, i. e.) 5 from 13, which leaves 8 (i. e. 6—1=5, and 13-5=8): the expression, therefore, denotes the 8th of April.

(a.) In reckoning the days before the Calends, as they are not the last day of the current month, but the first of the following, it is necessary to subtract two from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Calends of the following month, and to take the remainder from the number of days in the month.

Thus, XV. Cal. Quintiles is 15-2=13, and 30-13=17, i. e. the Roman date XV. Cal. Quint. is equivalent to the 17th of June.

(b.) To reduce our calendar to the Roman, the preceding method is to be reversed. Thus when the given day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, (unless it be the day before the Nones or the Ides), we are to add one to the number denoting the day of the month, according to our reckoning, on which the Nones or Ides fell. But if the day is after the Ides, (unless it be the last day of the month), we must add two to the number of days in the month, and then subtract the number denoting the day of the month as expressed in our reckoning. The remainder will be the day before the Nones, Ides or Calends.

Thus to find the Roman date corresponding to the third of April, we have 5+1-3=3; the required date, therefore, is III. Non. Apr.—To find the proper Roman expression for our tenth of December we have 13+1-10=4; the date, therefore, is IV. Id. Dec.—The Roman expression for the 22d of August, in pursuance of the above rule, is found thus, 31+2-22=11, and the date is XI. Cal. Sept.

- (5.) In leap year, both the 24th and 25th of February were called the sixth before the Calends of March. The 24th was called dies bisextus, and the year itself annus bisextus, bissextile or leap year.
- (a.) The day after the Calends, etc., was sometimes called postrīdie călendas, etc.
- (b.) The names of the months are properly adjectives, though often used as nouns, mensis being understood.

(6.) The correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans is exhibited in the following

TABLE.

Days of our months.	MAR. MAI. Jul. Oct.	Jan. Aug. Dec.	APR. JUN. SEPT. Nov.	FEBR.
1	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.
	VI. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.
2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
5	III. "	Nonæ.	Nonæ.	Nonæ.
6	Pridie Non.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.
7	Nonæ.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Idus.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "
11	V. "	II I. "	III. "	III. "
12	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
13	III. "	Idus.	Idus.	Idus.
14	Pridie Id.	XIX. Cal.	X VIII. Cal.	XVI. Cal.
15	Idus.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Cal.	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	х. "	VIII. "
23	х. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	III. "
28	V. "	V. "	IV. "	Pridie "Mar
29	7 4 .	1 7 .	III. "	
30	111.	111.	Pridie Cal.	
31	Pridie Cal.	Pridie Cal.		

(7.) In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:-

23. VII. Călendas Martias.

27. IV. Cal. Mart.

bisexto Cal. Mart.
 VI. Cal. Mart.

28. III. " "
29. pridie Cal. Mart.

(a.) Hence in reducing a date of February in leap-year to the Roman date, for the first 23 days we proceed according to the preceding rule in 4, (b.), as if the month had only 28 days. The 24th is marked as bisecto Cal. Mart., and to obtain the proper expression for the remaining five days we regard the month as having 29 days. Thus the 27th of February in leap-year is 29+2—27=4, and the proper Roman expression is IV. Cal. Mart.

(b.) On the other hand, to reduce a Roman date of February in leap-year to our date we reverse the above process, and during the Nones and Ides and until the VII. Călendas Martias we reckon the month to have only 28 days:—bisexto Cal. Mart. is set down as the 24th, and for the remaining days designated as VI. V. IV. III. and pridic Cal. Mart. we reckon the month to have 29 days. Thus III. Cal. Mart. is 3—2=1, and 29—1=28, and the given day is equivalent to the 28th of February.

- (8.) The Latins not only said tertio, pridie, etc., Cilendas, etc., but also ante diem tertium, etc., Cilendas, etc.; and the latter form in Cicero and Livy is far more common than the former, and is usually written thus, a. d. III. Cal., etc.
- (9.) The expression ante diem was used as an indeclinable noun, and is joined with in and ex; as, Consul Látinas férias in ante diem tertium Idus Sextulis édixit, The consul appointed the Latin festival for the third day before the Ides of August. Liv. Supplicatio indicta est ex ante diem quintum Idus Octôbres. Id. So, Ad pridie Nonas Maias. Cic.
- (10.) The week of seven days (hebdómas), was not in use among the Romans under the republic, but was introduced under the emperors. The days of the week were then named from the planets; dies Sōlis, Sunday; dies Lūnæ, Monday; dies Martis, Tuesday; dies Mercūrii, Wednesday; dies Jōvis, Thursday; dies Vēnēris, Friday; dies Sāturni, Saturday.
- (11.) The term nundinæ (from novem—dies) denotes the regular market day at Rome when the country people came into the city; but it is not used for the purpose of denoting the period of eight days intervening between two successive market days.
- (12.) The year at Rome was designated by the names of the consuls for that year. Thus Virgil was born, M. Licinio Crasso et Cn. Pompeio Magno consulibus, i. e. in the year of the consulship of Crassus and Pompey. But in Roman authors events are often dated from the year in which Rome was founded, which, according to Varro, was in the 753d year before the birth of Christ. This period was designated as anno urbis condita, and by abbreviation, a. u. c., or simply u. c., and sometimes by a. alone, before the numerals.

Thus the birth of Virgil was $a.\ u.\ c.$ 684. To reduce such dates to our reckoning, if the given number is less than 754, we subtract it from the latter number, and the difference is the required year before Christ. The birth of Virgil therefore is 7684=70 before Christ.—But if the number of the Roman year exceeds 758, we deduct 753 from the given number, and the remainder is the year after Christ. For example, the emperor Augustus died $a.\ u.\ c.$ 767, and the corresponding year of our era is 767—753=14.

II. TABLES OF MONEY, WEIGHT, AND MEASURE.

OF THE As.

§ \$27. The Romans used this word (As) to denote, I. The copper coin, whose value (in the time of Cicero) was about one cent and a half of our money. II. The unit of weight (libra), or of measure (jūgērum). III. Any unit or integer considered as divisible; as, of inheritances, interest, houses, etc.; whence ex asse hēres, one who inherits the whole. The multiples of the As are, Dūpondius (duo pondo; for the As originally weighed a pound), i. e. 2 Asses; Sestertius (sesqui tertius), i. e. 2 Asses; Tressis, i. e. 3 Asses; Quatrussis, i. e. 4 Asses; and so on to Centussis, i. e. 100 Asses. The As, whatever unit it represented, was divided into twelve parts or unciæ, and the different fractions received different names, as follows:

Uncia.	
As 12	Quincunx 5
Deunx	Triens 4
	Quādrans, or Těruncius 3
Dodrans	Sextans 2
Bes 8	Uncia 1
Septunx 7	
Sēmis 6	Sescuncia

'The Uncia was divided in the following manner:-

1	Uncia	contained	2	Sēmunciæ.
	66	46	3	Duellæ.
	66	44	4	Sīcilici.
	66	46	6	Sextŭlæ.
	66	44		Drachmæ.
	66	44	24	Scrūpŭla.
	66	44	48	Obŏli.

ROMAN COINS.

These were the Těruncius, Sembella, and As or Lībella, of copper; the Sestertius, Quinārius (or Victōriātus), and Dēnārius, of silver; and the Aureus, of gold.

-		\$	Cts.	M.
The	Těruncius	ő	0	3.9
	Těruncii make 1 Sembella		0	7.8
2	Sembellæ " 1 As or Lībella		1	5.6
$2\frac{1}{2}$	Asses* " 1 Sestertius		3	9
2	Sestertii " 1 Quinārius	0	7	8
2	Quīnārii " 1 Dēnārius	0	15	6
25	Dēnārii " 1 Aureus	3	90	0

^{*} Sometimes also (in copper) the triens, sextans, uncia, sextula, and dupondius.

ROMAN COMPUTATION OF MONEY.

Sestertii Nummi.

	Ф	Cts.	M.	
Sestertius (or nummus)	 0	3	9	
Decem sestertii	 0	39	0	
Centum sestertii	 3	90	0	
Mille sestertii (equal to a sestertium)	 39	0	0	
Sestertia.				
Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii)	 39	0	0	
Děcem sestertia	 390	0	0	
Centum, centum sestertia, or centum millia sestertiûm	 3900	0	0	
Decies sestertium, or decies centena millia nummum	 39000	0	0	
Centies, or centies H. S	390000	0	0	
Millies H. S.	3900000	0	0	
Millies centies H. S	 4290000	0	0	

N. B.—The marks denoting a Sestertius nummus are IIS., LLS., HS., which are properly abbreviations for 2 1-2 asses. Observe, also, that when a line is placed over the numbers, centena milita is understood, as in the case of the numeral adverbs; thus, H. S.

MC. is millics centies HS.; whereas HS. MC. is only 1100 Sestertii.

ROMAN CALCULATION OF INTEREST.

The Romans received interest on their loans monthly, their highest rate being one per cent. (centesima), a month, i. e. 12 per cent a year. As this was the highest rate, it was reckoned as the as or unit in reference to the lower rates, which were denominated, according to the usual division of the as, sēmisses, trientes, quādrantes, etc., i. e. the half, third, fourth, etc., of the as or of 12 per cent. according to the following table:—

	Per cent. a year
Asses ūsūræ or centēsīmæ	$\dots 12$
Sēmisses ūsūræ	6
Trientes ūsūræ	
Quadrantes ūsūræ	
Sextantes üsüræ.	
Unciæ ūsūræ	
Quincunces ūsūræ	
Septunces ūsūræ	7
Besses üsüræ	8
Dodrantes ūsūræ	
Dextantes ūsūræ	
Deunces ūsūræ	
Dennees usura	11

ROMAN WEIGHTS.

				Oz.	Dwts	. Gr.
	Sĭlĭqua			 0	0	3.036
3	Siliquæ n	nake	1 Obŏlus	 0	0	9.107
2	Obŏli	- 66	1 Scrūpulum.	 0	0	18.214
3	Scrūpŭla	66	1 Drachma	 0	2	6.643
11	Drachma	"	1 Sextŭla	 0	3	0.857
			1 Sīcilicus	 0	4	13.286
1 }	Sīcilicus		1 Duella	0	6	1.714
	Duellæ		1 Uncia	0	18	5.143
12	Unciæ		1 Libra* (As)	10		13.714

^{*}The Libra was also divided, according to the fractions of the As, into Deunx, etc.

ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS DRY.

English Corn Measure.

			Peck.	Gal.	Pint.	Sol. in.
	Lĭgŭla		0	0	0 1-48	0.01
4	Ligulæ make	1 Cvăthus	0	0	0 1-12	0.04
11	Cyathus "	1 Acētābŭlum	0	0	0 1-8	0.06
4	Acētābŭla"	1 Hēmīna	0	0	0 1-2	0.24
2	Hēmīnæ "	1 Sextārius	0	0	1	0.48
16	Sextārii "	1 Modius	1	ŏ	0	7.68

ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS LIQUID.

				_		
				Englis	h Wine .	Measure.
				Galls.	Pints.	Sol. in.
Lĭgŭla				0	0 1-48	0.117
Ligulæ n	nake	1	Cvăthus	0	0 1-12	0.469
Cyathus	66	1	Acētābŭlum	0	0 1-8	0.704
	66			0	0 1-4	1.409
Quartārii	66	1	Hēmīna	0	0 1-2	2.876
Hēmīnæ	66			0	1	5.636
Sextārii	66			0	7	4.942
Congii	46	1	Urna	3	4 1-2	5.33
Urnæ	66			7	1	10.66
Amphŏræ	"			143	3	11.095
	Līgūlæ r Cyāthus Acētābūla Quartārii Hēmīnæ Sextārii Congii Urnæ	Līgūlæ make Cyāthus " Acētābūla " Quartārii " Hēmīnæ " Sextārii " Congii " Urnæ "	Ligūlæ make 1 Cyāthus " 1 Acētābūla " 1 Quartārii " 1 Hēmīnæ " 1 Sextārii " 1 Congii " 1 Urnæ " 1	Quartārii " 1 Quartārius. Quartārii " 1 Hēmīna. Hēmīna " 1 Sextārius*. Sextārii " 1 Congius Congii " 1 Urna " 1 Amphōra (or Quadrantal).	Galls. Carrell Carre	Līgūla 0 0 1-48 Līgūlæ make 1 Cyāthus 0 0 1-12 Cyāthus 1 Acētābūlum. 0 0 1-8 Acētābūla 1 Quartārius. 0 0 1-4 Quartārii 1 Hēmīna. 0 0 1-2 Hēmīnæ 1 Sextārius* 0 1 Sextārii 1 Congius 0 7 Congii 1 Urnæ 3 4 1-2 Urnæ 1 Amphōra (or Quadrantal). 7

^{*}The Sextārius was also divided into twelve equal parts, called cyāthi, and therefore the câlices were denominated sextantes, quadrantes, trientes, according to the number of cyāthi which they contained.

N. B .- Cădus, congiārius, and dolium, are the names of certain vessels, not measures, of capacity.

ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.

				English			
				paces.	Feet.	Inch. Dec.	
	Digitus transv	ersus.		0	0	0.725 1-4	
1 1-5			1 Uncia	0	0	0.967	
3	Unciæ	66	1 Palmus minor	0	0	2.901	
4	Palmi minores	"	1 Pes	0	. 0	11.604	
1 1-4	Pes	66	1 Palmipes	0	1	2.505	
	Palmipes	66	1 Cŭbĭtus	0	1	5.406	
	Cŭbĭtus	66	1 Grădus	0	2	5.01	
2	Grădus	66	1 Passus	0	4	10.02	
125	Passus	66	1 Stădium	120	4	4.5	
8	Stădia	44	1 Milliārium		0	0	

ROMAN SQUARE MEASURES.

	Roman	English		
	sq. feet.	rods.	Sq. pls.	Sq. feet.
Jūgĕrum (As)	28,800	2	18	250.05
Deunx	26,400	2	10	183.85
Dextans	24,000	2	02	117.64
Dodrans	21,600	1	34	51.42
Bes	19,200	1	25	257.46
Septunx	16,800	1	17	191.25
Sēmis	14,400	1	09	125.03
Quincunx	12,000	1	01	58.82
Triens	9,600	0	32	264.85
Quādrans	7,200	0	24	198.64
Sextans	4,800	0	16	132.43
Uncia	2,400	0	08	66.21

REMARK 1. The Romans reckoned their copper money by asses, their silver money by sestertii, and their gold money by aurei and sometimes by Attic talents.

REM. 2. The as, as the unit of money, was originally a pound of copper, but its weight was gradually diminished, until, in the later days of the republic, it amounted to only 1-24th of a pound.

REM. 3. (a.) The dēnārius was a silver coin, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the dēnārius was equal to eighteen asses.

- (b.) The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the dēnārius, or two asses and a half (sēmistertius). The sestertius was called emphatically nummus, as in it all large sums were reckoned after the coining of silver money.
- (c.) The aureus (a gold coin), in the time of the emperors, was equal to 25 dēnārii, or 100 sesterces.
- REM. 4. In reckoning money, the Romans called any sum under 2000 sesterces so many sestertii; as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; centum sestertii, a hundred sesterces.
- REM. 5. Sums from 2000 sesterces (inclusive) to 1,000,000, they denoted either by mille, millia, with sestertiam (gen. plur.), or by the plural of the neuter noun sestertium, which itself signified a thousand sesterces. Thus they said quadraginta millia sestertiam, or quadraginta sestertia, to denote 40,000 sesterces. With the genitive sestertium, millia was sometimes omitted; as, sestertiam centum, scil. millia, 100,000 sesterces.
- REM. 6. To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, decies centena millia sestertium, 1,000,000 sesterces. The words centena millia, however, were generally omitted; thus, decies sestertium, and sometimes merely decies. See § 118, 5. So, centies, 10 millions; millies, 100 millions

REM. 7. Some suppose that sestertium, when thus joined with the numeral adverbs, is always the neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular. The genitive and ab-lative of that noun are thus used; as, Decies sestertii date, With a dowry of 1,000,000 sesterces. Tac. Quinquāgies sestertio, 5,000,000 sesterces. Id. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

ABBREVIATIONS.

§ 328. The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words:—

A., Aulus. C., Caius, or Gaius. Cn., Chēüs. D., Děcimus. L., Lūcius. M., Marcus. M. T. C., Marcus Tullius Cicëro. M., Mānius. Mam., Māmercus. N., Númērius. P., Publius.

Q., or Qu., Quintus. Ser., Servius. S., or Sex., Sextus. Sp., Spărius. T., Tîtus. Ti., or Tib., Tiběrius.

A. d., ante diem.
A. U. C., anno urbis conditæ.
Cal., or Kal., Călendæ.
Cos., Consul.
Coss., Consules.
D. D., Dīvus.
D. D., dōno dēdit.
D. D. D., dōno dēcat, dēdicat, or dōno dicat, dēdicat.
Des., dēsignātus.
D. M., diis mānībus.
Eq. Rom., ēques Rōmānus.

F., Fīlius; as, M. F.,
Marci fīlius.
Lctus, jūrisconsultus.
Id., idus.
Imp., impērātor.
J. O. M., Jŏvi, optimo
maximo.
N., nēpos.
Non., Nōnæ.
P. C., patres conscripti.
Pl., plēbis.
P. P., pōpūlus.
P. R., pōpūlus Rōmānus.

Pont. Max., pontifex maximus.
Pr., prætor.
Proc., prōconsul.
Resp., respūblica.
S., sālūtem, sacrum, or sēnātus.
S. D. P., sālūtem dīcit plūrimam.
S. P. Q. R., Sēnātus pŏpŭlusque Rōmānus.
S. C., sēnāths consultum.
Tr., tribūnus.

To these may be added terms of reference; as, c., căput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l. c., lóco citāto; l. l., lóco laudāto, in the place quoted; v., versus, verse.

DIFFERENT AGES OF ROMAN LITERATURE.

- § 329. 1. Of the Roman literature for the first five centuries after the foundation of the city, but few vestiges remain. The writers of the succeeding centuries have been arranged in four ages, in reference to the purity of the language in the period in which they flourished. These are called the golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages.
- 2. The golden age is reckoned from the time of Livius Andronicus, about A. U. C. 514, to the death of Augustus, A. U. C. 767, or A. D. 14, a period of a little more than 250 years. The writers of the early part of this age are valued rather on account of their antiquity, and in connection with the history of the language, than as models of style. It was not till the age of Cicero, that Roman literature reached its highest elevation. The era comprehending the generation immediately preceding, and that immediately succeeding, that of Cicero, as well as his own, is the period in which the most distinguished writers of Rome flourished; and their works are the standard of purity in the Latin language.

- 3. The silver age extended from the death of Augustus to the death of Trajan, A. D. 118, a period of 104 years. The writers of this age were inferior to those who had preceded them; yet several of them are worthy of commendation.
- 4. The brazen age comprised the interval from the death of Trajan to the time when Rome was taken by the Goths, A. D. 410. From the latter epoch commenced the iron age, during which the Latin language was much adulterated with foreign words, and its style and spirit essentially injured.
- 5. The body of Latin writings has been otherwise arranged by Dr. Freund, so as to be comprised in three main periods,—the Ante-classical, Classical, and Post-classical. The ante-classical extends from the oldest fragments of the language to Lucretius and Varro; the classical from Cicero and Cæsar to Tacitus, Suetonius, and the younger Pliny inclusive; the post-classical from that time to the fifth century of our era. The classical Latinity is subdivided into (a.) Ciceronian, (b.) Augustan, (c.) post-Augustan, and to the language of the fourth and fifth centuries he has given the title of late Latin.

LATIN WRITERS IN THE DIFFERENT AGES.

(From the Lexicon of Facciolatus.)

WRITERS OF THE GOLDEN AGE.

Lævius.
C. Nævius.
Statius Cæcilius.
Q. Ennius.
M. Pacuvius.

Livius Andronīcus.

M. Pacuvius.
L. Accius.
C. Lucilius.
Sex. Turpilius.
L. Afranius.

L. Cornelius Sisenna. P. Nigidius Figulus.

C. Decius Laberius.
M. Verrius Flaccus.
Varro Attacīnus.
Titinius.
L. Pomponius.

C. Sempronius Asellio. Cn. Matius. Q. Novius. C. Q. Atta.

L. Čassius Hemīna.Fenestella.Q. Claud. Quadrigarius.

Cœlius Antipăter. Fabius Pictor. Cn. Gellius.

L. Piso, and others.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.

M. Porcius Cato.

M. Accius Plautus. M. Terentius Afer.

T. Lucretius Carus.C. Valerius Catullus.P. Syrus.

P. Syrus.C. Julius Cæsar.C. Cornelius Nepos.M. Tullius Cicero.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius.
C. Sallustius Crispus.
M. Terentius Varro.
Albius Tibullus.

Albius Tibullus.
P. Virgilius Maro.
T. Livius.

M. Manilius. M. Vitruvius. P. Ovidius Naso.

Q. Horatius Flaccus.
 C. Pedo Albinovānus.
 Gratius Faliscus.
 Phædrus.

C. Comificins.

A. Hurtius, or Oppius. P. Cornelius Sevērus.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:—

Q. Mutius Scævŏla. Alfenus Varus. M. Antistius Labeo.

Masurius Sabīnus.

Of the writers of the golden age, the most distinguished are Terence, Catullus, Cæsar, Nepos, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, T. Livy, and Sallust.

WRITERS OF THE SILVER AGE.

A. Cornelius Celsus. P. Velleius Patercŭlus.

L. Junius Moderātus Columella. Pomponius Mela.

A. Persius Flaceus. Q. Asconius Pediānus.

L. Annæus Scněca.

M. Annæus Seněca.

C. Silius Italicus.
C. Valerius Flaccus.
C. Julius Solinus.
D. Junius Juvenālis.
P. Papinius Statius.
M. Valerius Martiālis.

M. Annæus Lucanus. T. Petronius Arbiter. C. Plinius Secundus.

M. Fabius Quintilianus. Sex. Julius Frontinus. C. Cornelius Tacītus. C. Plinius Cæcilius Se-

cundus. L. Annæus Florus.

C. Suetonius Tranquil-

§ 329.

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat uncertain :-

Q. Curtius Rūfus. Valerius Probus.

Scribonius Largus. Sulpitia.

L. Fenestella. Atteius Capito.

Of the writers of the silver age, the most distinguished are Celsus, Velleius, Columella, the Senecas, the Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian, Tacitus, Suetonius, and Curtius.

WRITERS OF THE BRAZEN AGE.

A. Gellius.

L. Apuleius. Q. Septimius Tertulliānus.

Q. Serēnus Sammonicus.

Censorīnus. Thaseius Cæcilius Cypriānus.

T. Julius Calpurnius. M. Aurelius Nemesiānus. Ælius Spartiānus. Julius Capitolinus. Ælius Lampridius.

Vulcatius Gallicanus. Trebellius Pollio. Flavius Vopiscus. Cœlius Aurelianus. Flavius Eutropius. Rhemnius Fannius. Arnobius Afer.

L. Cœlius Lactantius. Ælius Donātus. C. Vettus Juvencus.

Julius Firmīcus. Fab. Marius Victorinus. Sex. Rūfus, or Rūfus Festus.

Ammiānus Marcellīnus.

Vegetius Renātus. Aurel. Theodorus Macrobius.

Q. Aurelius Symmächus. D. Magnus Ausonius. Paulinus Nolānus.

Sex. Aurelius Victor. Aurel. Prudentius Clemens.

Cl. Claudiānus. Marcellus Empiricus. Falconia Proba.

Of an Age not entirely certain.

Valerius Maximus. Justīnus.

Terentiānus Maurus. Minutius Felix.

Sosipăter Charisius. Flavius Aviānus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests:-

Salvins Juliānus.

Licinius Proculus. Neratius Priscus. P. Juventius Celsus. Priscus Jabolēnus. Domitius Ulpiānus.

Caius. Callistrătus. Æmilius Papiniānus.

Herennius Modestīnus.

Julius Paulus. Sex. Pomponius. Venuleius Saturnīnus. Ælius Marciānus. Ælius Gallus, and others.

Of the writers of the brazen age, Justin, Terentianus, Victor, Lactantius, and Claudian, are most distinguished.

The age to which the following writers belong is uncertain. The style of some of them would entitle them to be ranked with the writers of the preceding ages, while that of others would place them even below those of the iron Palladius Rutilius Taurus Emilianus.
Emilianus.
Emilius Mācer.
Messāla Corvīnus.
Vibius Sequester.
Julius Obsequens.
L. Ampelius.
Apicius Cœlius.
Sex. Pompeius Festus.
Prŏbus (auctor Notārum.)
Fulgentius Planciădes.
Hyginus.
C. Cæsar Germanīcus.
P. Victor.
P. Vegetius.

Auctores Priapeiorum.
Catalecta Virgilii et
Ovidii.
Auctor orationis Sallustii
in Cic. et Ciceronis in

Sall.; item illius Antequam îret in exsilium.

Auctor Epistŏlæ ad Octavium.

tavium.
Auctor Panegyrici ad
Pisonem.

Declamationes quæ tribuuntur Quintiliano, Porcio Latroni, Calpurnio Flacco. Interpres Darētis Phrygii, et Dictyos Cretensis. Scholiastæ Vetěres. Grammatīci Antīqui. Rhetöres Antīqui.

Medici Antiqui.
Catalecta Petroniāna.
Pervigilium Venēris.
Poematia et Epigrammăta vetēra a Pithæo collecta.

Monumentum Ancyrānum. Fasti Consulāres. Inscriptiones Veteres.

WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.

Cl. Rutilius Numatiānus.
Servius Honorātus.
D. Hieronymus.
D. Augustīnus.
Sulpicius Sevērus.
Paulus Orosius.
Celius Sedulius.
Codex Theodosiānus.
Martiānus Capella.
Claudiānus Mamertus.
Sidonius Apollināris.

Latīnus Pacātus.
Claudius Mamertīnus, et
alii, quorum sunt Panegyrīci vetēres.
Alcīmus Avītus.
Manl. Severīnus Boëthius.
Prisciānus.
Nonius Marcellus.
Justiniāni Institutiones
et Codex.

Ruf. Festus Aviēnus.
Arātor.
M. Aurelius Cassidōrus.
Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus.
Isidōrus Hispalensis.
Anonýmus Ravennas.
Aldhelmus or Althelmus.
Paulus Diacŏnus.





The figures in the following Index designate the Sections and their divisions: R. stands for remark, N. for note, E. for exception, w. for with, and pr. for prosody.

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